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Strengthening of the coordination of humanitarian and disaster relief assistance of the United Nations, including special economic assistance: special economic assistance to individual countries or regions

Assistance to Mozambique

Report of the Secretary-General**

I. Introduction

1. The dramatic economic and political recovery of Mozambique after the end of the 16-year civil conflict continued in 1999. Growth in per capita gross domestic product (GDP) in the past three years has been determined at 8.8, 9.7 and 7.3 per cent, respectively, while inflation fell below 6 per cent. Improvement in the human development index is also accelerating. For Mozambique, 1999 was the year in which it laid the foundation for a take-off that, in the absence of unforeseen shocks, should eventually remove it from the group of the poorest countries in the world. On the political front, the second successful multiparty election confirmed that Mozambique is on the path to parliamentary democracy. The Government was re-elected, but with a strong and vocal opposition. The first-ever elected municipal governments (33), elected in 1998, began work in 1999. Foreign investment is increasing, and aid levels have declined although marginally, showing continued donor support. A new land law came into effect, providing a firm base for peasant agriculture. Results of both the first-ever national poverty assessment and the first post-war census were published in 1999, with both exercises making clear the depth of the problems to be faced in the development of a comprehensive poverty programme. Finally, the United Nations agencies, working together, played a central role in developing the national strategy to combat human immunodeficiency virus/acquired immunodeficiency syndrome (HIV/AIDS). It is hoped that the strategy will lay the foundation for containing the spread of the pandemic in Mozambique which, with a 14.5 per cent adult infection rate, has the 10th highest incidence level in the continent and, coincidentally, in the world.

2. Mozambique remains one of the 10 poorest countries in the world. The First National Poverty and Well-being Assessment, published in 1999, showed that 69 per cent of all Mozambicans live in absolute poverty. Mozambique was ranked 169 of 174 countries in the human development index for 1997.[1] Increasing life expectancy, higher enrolment rates and rising GDP are, however, all pushing up the human development index at an increasing rate, with improvements of more than 3.5 per cent expected for both 1998 and 1999. Mozambique is well below the sub-Saharan average for most development indicators. Life expectancy averages 43.5 years, infant mortality 146 per 1,000 live births, and 43 per cent of children under five years of age suffer from chronic malnutrition. The adult literacy rate

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** The footnote requested by the General Assembly in resolution 54/248 was not included in the submission.

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remains low at 40 per cent and is especially so for rural women (16 per cent). The national poverty assessment report observed that, in essence, Mozambique was starting from scratch, and that with so few roads, health facilities, schools and widespread poverty, it seemed that everything had to be done at once to create the conditions for the physical, human, financial and social capital necessary for progress.

3. History explains, in large part, the huge development challenge now facing this country. Independence came in 1975 after a 10-year war of liberation but, within years, the country was plunged into a civil war which lasted some 16 years. When that war ended with the peace accords of October 1992, damages were estimated at more than $20 billion (10 times the annual GDP in 1992). In the ensuing period, the Government, with the help of donors, including the United Nations, has rebuilt many of the schools and health posts and constructed new ones but some district towns still have rows of gutted buildings — vivid evidence of how much remains to be done. Of the country's roads, 10 per cent remain closed and 32 per cent are considered in poor condition and are often closed in the rainy season. In 1981, before the war, 93 per cent of children started primary school; the Ministry of Education hopes to return to that level, but not before 2004.

4. The recovery of Mozambique from such devastation in the relatively short time of seven years is considered remarkable but the country's economy remains extremely fragile. Post-war reconstruction has still not been completed. Life has improved since the war, in part owing to several years of favourable weather that contributed to increasing levels of agricultural production. Most people — from peasant farmers to those in small business — still have no reserves, however, and even small disruptions can have a disproportionate impact. Infrastructure remains extremely weak and a single washed-out road can cut off large communities. Floods, such as those that occurred in southern Mozambique in February 1999 and February 2000, set farmers, fishermen and other small businesses back many years. Mozambique will continue to need high levels of international assistance to complete reconstruction, and to build a more robust base for the kind of development that is essential to ending acute poverty. The United Nations system can continue to play a vital role, particularly in mobilizing international assistance for these efforts.

II. Political context

A. Multiparty election

5. The second successful multiparty election in December 1999 was another important step towards normality and demonstrated that the multiparty democratic process is taking root. As in the first multiparty election in 1994, there was a high turnout: 68 per cent of adults of voting age actually cast ballots in 1994 and 64 per cent did so in 1999. The voting process was smooth and peaceful, and drew high praise from international observers and from national observers who participated in large numbers for the first time. Again, Frente de Libertação de Moçambique (FRELIMO) and its president Joaquim Chissano were re-elected; Mr. Chissano won 52.3 per cent of the vote and his margin over opposition, the Resistência Nacional Moçambicana (RENAMO) leader Alfonso Dhlakama, was reduced compared to 1994. FRELIMO, however, increased its parliamentary majority, from 129 of 250 seats to 133 of 250 seats.

6. The election law of Mozambique allows a high level of transparency, with the presence of national and international observers and party agents at all times during the counting process. Nonetheless, the closeness of the elections led to allegations of fraud, subsequently rejected by both domestic and international observers. RENAMO appealed to the Supreme Court, demanding a recount. After a two-week investigation, the Court issued a very detailed ruling approving the election results. It rejected most of the points raised by RENAMO as misunderstandings of the process, noting that the Party had been represented on the national and provincial election commissions that had approved the decisions made. Finally, the Supreme Court ruled that, even with the high error rate, not enough votes were excluded to have changed the outcome.

7. The first-ever local elections in Mozambique took place in the largest 33 cities and towns in 1998, and the new municipal assemblies began work in 1999. Although local elections were boycotted by RENAMO and suffered from a low turnout (in sharp contrast to both the 1994 and 1999 national multiparty elections), candidates from citizens' lists and opposition parties were elected in 6 cities and have formed vocal oppositions within the local assemblies. These elections marked the first step in an extensive process

of decentralization, in which the new municipalities are progressively taking on powers over local services, basic health and education, and local economic development. This marks a significant departure from the very centralized system inherited from the colonial era, which continued during the one-party state period.

B. Political development

8. Mozambique was a one-party State from independence in 1975 until 1990, when a new constitution was adopted, creating a multiparty system with a separation of powers. The system has a strong President who appoints the Government, a Parliament which must approve the annual budget and plan as well as all legislation, and an independent court system. A revised draft constitution, which would have shifted powers from the President to Parliament, has been deferred to the new legislature, since consensus could not be reached on the final version. Parliament continues to grow in stature and experience and its committees are showing their emerging skills in investigating and shaping legislation. Parliament continues, however, to reflect a broader tension between local traditions of consensus and incorporation and the winner-take-all system in which the party with a majority of seats can dominate.

9. The changing political process runs much more deeply than simply elected bodies. A vibrant civil society of pressure groups, associations of business people, women, peasants, trade unions and churches is growing and becoming more active. An independent press is now well established, ensuring that a broad spectrum of political views and interest groups is heard. This political growth and vibrancy is particularly remarkable considering the national context: a country only recently emerging from a long and bitter period of conflict, low levels of literacy and widespread poverty, and all of this in a large country with poor communications.

C. Land law and peasant rights

10. An estimated 80 per cent of Mozambicans live in rural areas. Of this group, 98.5 per cent have at least some land and 90 per cent gain most of their living through subsistence agriculture, but nearly all use only a hoe as their main farming implement, while fewer than 10 per cent use fertilizer or incorporate irrigation practices. Raising the productivity of peasant farmers is considered critical to combating poverty, and securing their land occupancy rights is seen as the essential first step.

11. The new land law marks the most direct interaction between the new democracy and economic development issues. The law was approved in 1997 and regulations to enforce it came into effect in 1999. This involved four years of consultation and debate, with frequent redrafting, in one of the most open and democratic processes seen in Mozambique. Active campaigning and lobbying by civil society and intervention by Parliament led to the approval of firm occupancy rights for peasants and other landholders and the rejection of international pressure to allow land sales and mortgages. Other provisions saw women's rights increased, traditional leaders given a greater role, and the creation of a form of collective tenure. In addition, the powers of the Council of Ministers to reallocate land were restricted.

12. The law confirmed the overriding rights of present occupants, and required that all outstanding applications for land for development projects be resubmitted. Fewer than 10 per cent of these were, ending fears that widespread land grabbing would displace peasants. New and renewed applications would only be considered if local people had been consulted. Pressure groups and peasant associations launched massive publicity campaigns in 1999 to inform people of their rights, to good effect.

III. Economic context

13. In 1987, the Government introduced its economic rehabilitation programme, in partnership with the World Bank, with a package of liberalization of the economy, devaluation, spending constraints and strategic investment. Despite the intensifying war, this brought a 15 per cent increase in per capita GDP by 1990, as well as large increases in exports and industrial production, as inflation fell dramatically. In 1990 and 1991, GDP per capita (recently recalculated by the National Statistics Institute) was about $185. In 1990, however, a comprehensive stabilization and structural adjustment programme was introduced, with sharp restrictions on government spending and even limits on aid. The result was a decline in the economy. In 1992, GDP fell to $140 and it stayed below $150 for the ensuing three years, despite the end of the war and

better rains. By 1994, industrial production was half that of the 1990 level; inflation increased from 35 per cent in 1991 to 70 per cent in 1994. A public debate was initiated in 1995 by some donors which argued that strict structural adjustment was inappropriate for a post-war economy, and the adjustment programme was revised to allow rises in wages and in aid spending. This launched a four-year period of rapid growth of per capita GDP of 4.5 per cent (1996), 8.8 per cent (1997), 9.7 per cent (1998) and 7.3 per cent (1999), to reach a GDP per capita estimated at $246 in 1999. Inflation fell to below 6 per cent in 1997 and 1999, while in 1998 consumer prices actually fell by 1.3 per cent. Mozambique is now using a more accurate statistical base to calculate GDP, which has substantially increased estimates of GDP going back to 1991. Although the new methodology makes comparisons with the pre-1991 period difficult, it can safely be concluded that per capita GDP has surely not returned to pre-war 1980 levels, and Mozambique remains one of the poorest countries in the world.

A. Privatization and investment

14. A major privatization programme was begun in 1990 and, by the end of the decade, 1,200 firms had been privatized. Most large companies, including those in the banking, brewing and cement production sectors, were taken over by foreign firms. Many smaller companies were, however, sold to local entrepreneurs. Private management of core state services is another aspect of the ongoing structural reform programme. Management of customs duty collection had already been privatized, and foreign management of the urban water supply was agreed to in 1999. Private management of ports and railways is now being organized but in a way that maintains some Mozambican interest. Civil service reform took a step forward, with the introduction of a new career structure allied to a graduated system of salary increases (decompression), in an attempt to reverse the brain drain and to keep the more qualified and experienced staff in the public sector. Legal and judicial reform remains one of the major outstanding challenges. The commercial code dates back, in part, to the 18th century, and a new code will not be introduced before 2001.

15. Foreign investment has grown rapidly. In the seven years 1993-1999, $4.2 billion in foreign investments were approved, $1.2 billion in foreign direct investment and $3 billion in loans. Implementation has been slower, however, with only $284 million actually spent in 1998 ($213 million in investment and $81 million in private sector credit). In 1999, work started on the $1.3 billion Mozal aluminium smelter, by far Mozambique's largest investment project. In large part due to Mozal, 1999 saw $348 million in actual foreign direct investment and $495 million in foreign loans to the private sector. Mozal alone is believed to account for more than 2 per cent of the 7.3 per cent per capita GDP growth rate for 1999, leading to fears that growth is increasingly being generated by large projects. Neighbouring South Africa accounts for nearly one half of the foreign investment, either directly or via British-based companies. South African investment is split between large projects like Mozal, privatization of the breweries, and small tourism and industry projects. France and Portugal are the other two large investors. Concern is growing inside Mozambique about the increasing dominance of foreign investors and contractors which are stronger, better capitalized and more experienced than domestic firms, and there is an acknowledged need for support to the emerging indigenous private sector.

B. Macroeconomic trends

16. Traditional exports, notably prawns, cashew nuts and cotton, have remained steady over the past three years, at $230 million per year. The Cahora Bassa dam began exporting power to South Africa and Zimbabwe in 1998 and electricity export earnings jumped to $52 million in 1999. Service income from transport and tourism also stabilized at $130 million a year. Thus, exports of goods and services still cover only one half of imports, excluding capital imports for the big projects.

17. Aid remains absolutely essential to the Mozambican economy, and development assistance levels are falling more slowly than had been predicted. Grants and loans to Mozambique declined from $1,141 million in 1995 to $835 million in 1998 and are believed to have fallen to $800 million in 1999. With the near total phasing-out of emergency assistance, food aid and resettlement assistance, there has been a shift towards longer-term development goals. Of assistance provided in 1998, $593 million (71 per cent) was grants, of which $448 million was bilateral, $93

million from the European Union and $52 million from the United Nations system. The remaining $238 million comprised loans, of which $133 million came from the World Bank. One third of donations and all loans are for investment projects; nearly one third of grants is direct balance-of-payment support to the Government. Mozambique remains one of the most aid-dependent countries in the world, but declining levels and the recalculation of GDP means that aid in 1999 was only 19 per cent of GDP, compared to 49 per cent in 1995. This is, however, still well above the average for sub-Saharan Africa (7 per cent in 1997) and for low human development countries (10 per cent in 1997).

18. Debt relief under the first phase of the Heavily Indebted Poor Countries (HIPC) initiative was granted in mid-1999. More debt relief was granted than had been proposed in 1998 because the international financial institutions had overestimated Mozambique's export growth; roughly one half of Mozambique's public and publicly guaranteed debt was cancelled. In 1998, Mozambique had been scheduled to pay $344 million in debt service (interest and principal repayments) but paid only $104 million. After HIPC debt relief, the debt service payments in 2000 will be $76 million, a real gain of $28 million, although not enough to cover the fall in aid. Mozambique is expected to have a further amount of debt cancelled in 2000 under the modified Cologne terms of HIPC, which could bring debt-service payments in 2001 down to $57 million.

19. Although economic recovery has been impressive, it must be remembered that the country started from a very low base, and this continues to create substantial problems. The base for taxation is very small. Customs duties account for one sixth of tax revenue, and while privatization of customs administration has improved the efficiency of collection, this has been matched by a reduction in import duties as part of the liberalization of the economy, with a further cut planned for 2001. More than one third of revenue comes from taxes on consumer purchases, with the introduction of a value-added tax in 1999, which replaced the old circulation (sales) tax. Similarly, savings rates remain very low. The banking system, although now privatized, remains concentrated at Maputo and has so far proved unable to mobilize national savings or to lend effectively to entrepreneurs and small businesses in the rural areas, which will be key to development. Interest rates remain prohibitively high (22 per cent compared to inflation of under 6 per cent). Meanwhile, Mozambique's national business sector remains weak, having so far not recovered from skill deficits and the decapitalization caused by the war.

20. Tax revenues remain at about 11.5 per cent of GDP. Government current expenditure rose from 9.5 per cent of GDP in 1997 to 10.6 per cent in 1999, and the levels are rising slowly. There was a substantial hike in 1999 because of an increase in the minimum wage and an increase in civil service salaries. The Mozambican Human Rights League identified prevailing low wages as the main cause of growing petty corruption. Health and education spending have risen rapidly, while military spending has been falling since the end of the war. In 1999, the Government expected to spend $96 million on recurrent education costs (such as teachers' salaries), $89 million on defence and security, $86 million on debt service (after having been granted HIPC debt relief) and $57 million on recurrent health costs.

IV. Poverty reduction

21. The 1999 national poverty assessment succeeded in shedding light on the extremely high levels of poverty in the country. Poverty lines based, inter alia, on the costs of basic food, clothing etc., were set for each province, and separately for urban and rural areas, and ranged from US$ 0.76 per day in the capital, Maputo, to US$ 0.30 a day in rural Nampula province. The survey found that 69 per cent of Mozambicans lived below the poverty line and that there was relatively little difference between urban and rural areas, where 62 per cent and 71 per cent, respectively, were below the poverty line. The study also reviewed the absolute-poverty line, indicating people who could not even afford basic food, and found that 53 per cent of Mozambicans were living in abject poverty. Since the majority of Mozambicans grow most of their own food, these figures, which take into account auto-consumption, confirm that Mozambique remains one of the poorest countries in the world.

22. Despite the high prevalence of poverty in Mozambique, it is unevenly distributed. Forty-eight per cent of the people of Maputo are poor. Sofala in central Mozambique has the worst level, with 88 per cent of the population poor and a poverty gap of 49 per cent, signifying that the mean income of that province's

population is only 51 per cent of a poverty income. Both of these figures are significantly worse than the two other poorest provinces, Inhambane and Tete (with a poverty gap of 83 per cent and 39 per cent, respectively).

23. The Mozambican poverty survey also highlighted the differentiated incidence of poor levels of health and education across different population groups. Only 16 per cent of rural adult women are literate, compared to 52 per cent of rural men, 32 per cent of urban women and 65 per cent of urban men. Few Mozambicans have even completed primary school: 5 per cent of rural women, 18 per cent of rural men, 33 per cent of urban women and 53 per cent of urban men. School enrolment remains low. In 1999, only 49 per cent of children aged between 7 and 11 years and 48 per cent of children aged between 12 and 17 years attend school. These figures fall to 33 per cent and 29 per cent for rural girls. Poor and absolutely poor households have more children working and are less likely to send children to school. Health levels remain poor. At least 43 per cent of children suffer chronic malnutrition (as measured by height for age) and this figure seems relatively unaffected by poverty levels, although the problem is significantly worse in rural areas.

24. Surprisingly, female-headed households are slightly less likely to be poor. Educating women in rural areas is thus seen as one of the most productive actions that government can take, since it is linked to significant increases in household consumption and improved health and nutritional status of children.

A. Action to reduce poverty

25. The poverty study found five critical determinants of poverty in Mozambique:

(a) Low educational levels of economically active adults, which affect family income directly but which also limit opportunities for non-agricultural earnings;

(b) High numbers of dependent children in proportion to adult workers;

(c) Low productivity of the family farming sector in general;

(d) Lack of alternative employment opportunities;

(e) Weak infrastructure in rural areas (i.e., poor roads, lack of markets, limited access to credit, lack of information about improved techniques etc.).

26. In November 1999, the Government set out its draft five-year plan to reduce absolute poverty, which tries to target these problems. In education, quite a dramatic increase is proposed, for example, the number of classrooms is to grow from 2,331 in 1999 to 4,442 by 2004, and the number of teachers from 3,210 to 5,553. Lower-level technical schools are to be opened in all provinces. Adult education and literacy is, however, largely to be left to the private sector — non-governmental organizations in the rural areas, churches, private schools and companies which train their own workers — as the severely stretched Ministry of Education finds itself unable to divert resources to this area for the immediate future.

27. Better peasant farming is the key to ending acute poverty. The revised land law is a key step in ensuring that peasants continue to have access to land, and now the challenge is to increase productivity, in particular of subsistence farmers with small plots. The Ministry of Agriculture has been renamed the Ministry of Agriculture and Rural Development and is pressing to increase peasant productivity, but there is a long way to go. Measures proposed include the increased use of fertilizers and pesticides, from the 2 per cent use by the population in 1999 to 6 per cent in 2003, and expanded access to extension services, from 18 per cent to 27 per cent. The other prescription is to raise rural incomes through employment. Job creation in rural areas is to be encouraged through labour-intensive schemes, such as road repair and maintenance, and through self-employment and microcredit. Rural people want access to jobs with conventional employers but this is not feasible since investment levels remain low in these areas.

28. Grant and loan funds will be essential for poverty reduction programmes, and the Ministry of Agriculture and Rural Development has itself been going through a fraught seven-year discussion to create a ministry-donor coordinated sectoral expenditure programme. The resulting product, ProAgri, was approved for implementation in January 1999. This is intended to lead to an agreed programme with all 18 donors and lenders pooling their funds of about $40 million per year and increasingly channelling them, through the Ministry's budget, on to provinces through increased decentralization. This should have started in 1999, and

donors and lenders have for the first time presented detailed lists of their projects in agriculture. Few, however, are participating as yet in the central funding. In a joint donor-government statement, ProAgri was described as a contract between donors and government that would empower government to take the lead in coordinating donors. In practice, however, widely different donor accounting processes, policy priorities and project interests have so far made this very difficult. ProAgri is seen as a model for a sector-wide approach, but it has also shown how much time and energy must be invested in setting up accounting and coordination methods for this sector before there is any direct impact on rural poverty.

B. Regional and local disparities

29. Much of Mozambique's growth has been at Maputo and in Maputo province in the far south of the country. The Maputo corridor links the port of Maputo to Johannesburg in South Africa and is being developed jointly by the two countries as a development corridor. A new toll road and the Mozal aluminium plant are already under construction, and other major projects are under discussion. Mozambique's investment promotion centre reports that, of investments approved in 1999, 69 per cent (by value) are in the Maputo corridor. The Maputo corridor contains only 10 per cent of Mozambique's population, yet it already accounts for one third of GDP, and private investment plans seem certain to increase that disparity. The Government has given priority to reopening roads closed during the wars, as well as railways in the centre and north, and is actively promoting investment in the Zambeze River valley, but it has been unable to provide sufficient regional incentives to overcome the preference of private investors to be close to South Africa. Another problem is the inability to protect domestic industry, even for short periods, as the country rebuilds after the war.

30. At the same time, the rapid rise in peasant production has contributed consistently to the sustained GDP growth experienced since 1995. Millions of peasants who were displaced to towns or had fled to neighbouring countries during the war returned to their farms, benefiting from 3 to 5 consecutive years of generally good rains. The pattern is, however, very mixed; in some areas, peasants are visibly better off but in more remote areas the commercial network has still not been re-established, eight years after the end of the war, and peasants are often unable to sell their surplus crops (and thus have no money to buy goods from travelling traders). The first *National Human Development Report* (1998) for Mozambique, published in 1999 with support from the United Nations Development Programme, pointed to the economic isolation to which a large number of rural communities were condemned. Most peasant families once survived on a mix of production for auto-consumption, sale of surplus crops and some wage labour from at least one family member. This pattern has not been re-established. There is a lack of jobs in rural areas, and many traders still seem unable to obtain credit to reopen the shops that had formed an essential part of rural life. High interest rates also discourage job-creating domestic investment. In its five-year plan to reduce absolute poverty, the Government has targeted those areas with the greatest agricultural potential, rather than those with the worst poverty. This policy choice raises the issue of choice between a larger increase in overall GDP, with the potential for wider income gaps, and discontent in poor areas.

31. On the basis of available data, the 1999 national poverty assessment concluded that, since the end of the war there may have been a modest reduction in poverty in urban areas. It was not possible to make comparisons in rural areas. The 1999 *National Human Development Report*, however, warned that in Mozambique the social cost of adjustment was excessively high and that per capita household consumption might have fallen. The Catholic Bishops Conference issued a pastoral letter in April 1999 which said that growth was not reaching down to the majority of people and that poverty and misery were increasing. Unemployment, in particular of youth and people who lost their jobs through privatization, is a particular problem, according to the Bishops, who noted further that even those who had jobs were paid starvation wages and that prices were rising faster than salaries.

V. HIV/AIDS

32. The war cut Mozambique off from the neighbouring States, and delayed the arrival of the HIV/AIDS epidemic, although the return of refugees and the new opening to trade led to rapid change. Malaria remains a bigger killer, and adult HIV-

infection rates are about 15 per cent, significantly less than in some neighbouring States. Mozambique, however, proved unable to make the maximum use of the extra window of opportunity, and HIV/AIDS gained real prominence as an issue only in 1999. One reason was the rising death rate, at present over 60,000 per year, and the acknowledgement, recently, of AIDS as the cause of death in the obituaries of prominent people. The national strategic plan to combat sexually transmitted diseases and HIV/AIDS was approved in 1999, and aims to keep HIV/AIDS levels at 17 per cent of the adult population. Even so, the impact of the rising incidence of HIV/AIDS on the country will be dramatic. In the absence of effective and timely measures to curb the spread of the virus, new projections suggest that, by 2005, there will be 150,000 adult deaths and 20,000 child deaths each year. This will actually reduce life expectancy in Mozambique from the present 42 years to 37 years, and will halve the rate of population growth. The number of orphans caused by AIDS will exceed 700,000 by 2005. The economic impact is expected to be significant; peasant-farming families (the majority of the population) will have fewer workers and more dependants, while industry and the state apparatus will lose skilled people.

33. The focus of the new strategy is to target people who have casual sexual relations (an estimated 1.6 million in 1999) and those living with HIV/AIDS (approximately 15,000) and to ensure access to essential and high-quality prevention methods. This involves more work with vulnerable groups, high-risk groups, such as the young and highly mobile people, and more inter-ministerial cooperation to involve sectors such as education, agriculture, youth and others as part of setting up channels to reach all target groups. Promotion of condom use, sex education, treatment for sexually transmitted diseases, counselling and voluntary testing, and strengthening the negotiating power of women and girls are seen as essential. Even so, the aims of the national strategy seem modest, for example, to have one third of adults using condoms during casual sexual relationships.

VI. Initiatives of the United Nations system: overview

34. In a country that has 23 bilateral donor partners and 10 multilateral donor partners, the United Nations system has a special role to play in coordination and in providing independent advice and support to the Government. Although the United Nations system remains a small donor in financial terms, it has a significant role to play in advocacy, in the coordination of donor funds and the provision of technical assistance. These strengths were underlined in the joint review by the Government and the United Nations system of Strategic Objective One of the United Nations Development Assistance Framework (UNDAF) in November 1999. A clear comparative advantage in the areas of policy dialogue and advocacy was acknowledged, in particular in joint or collaborative interventions.

35. In 1999, there was a more determined move among United Nations agencies to advocate the promotion of a rights-based approach to development. The underlying principles of this approach are set out in such instruments as the Convention on the Rights of the Child and the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, to which Mozambique is a signatory. The United Nations system has a special role in helping the Government to reach the targets set at various United Nations conferences on, for example, education for all, the rights of the child, women, population and development, and social development. There was more emphasis on determining targets in the national context, checking progress towards these, and on capacitating those in society who are ultimately responsible for seeing that rights are achieved.

36. In 1999, there was also a broadening of partnerships by the United Nations system, with increased outreach to civil society in the implementation of activities. For example, gender planning activities of the United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA) has included work with local non-governmental organizations, while advocacy on HIV/AIDS has seen UNDP provide briefings for the business sector, and the World Food Programme (WFP) has secured private sector sponsorship for a secondary school disaster prevention campaign. In addition, the United Nations system is supporting an initiative in Zambezia province, working with local and national authorities and non-governmental organizations to pilot follow-up to the principles set forth by the Fourth World Conference on Women, which will contribute lessons for shaping national and, it is hoped, international policies.

37. The review of Strategic Objective One of UNDAF reconfirmed that the United Nations system in Mozambique can be more effective when agencies act jointly rather than compete, and if they work within a shared planning cycle. The first step in rationalizing and providing a focus for assistance from the United Nations agencies, within a consolidating framework, began with the development of the common country assessment of 1997. Subsequently, Mozambique was selected as one of 11 countries in which the UNDAF concept was piloted. The Mozambique UNDAF, approved in May 1998, identified three strategic objectives, encompassing 11 programme areas for cooperation within the four-year period 1998-2001. The goals identified for each area were anchored in approved national priorities, within which cooperation programmes of individual agencies were also formulated and approved by their respective governing bodies. The first full year of operation of the Mozambique UNDAF was 1999, followed by a review which indicated that United Nations activities in Mozambique were following that approach.

VII. Update on initiatives

Strategic Objective One: Increase of access to, and quality of, basic social services and employment

Education

38. **Developing teacher training and education for girls**. The Government's goals are to make rapid progress towards universal primary education, to increase access for girls, and to raise the quality of education. This is set out in the education strategic plan, completed in 1998 with strong support from the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) and UNDP, which had also supported the Ministry of Education in its negotiations with donors on financing. Since then, UNESCO and other partners have been active in supporting curriculum reform and teacher development. Mozambique aims to have a rapid increase in the quantity and quality of primary education; UNDP is supporting teacher training but has had to reduce its support to education because of funding cuts. UNESCO is also helping in the design of a distance education system to upgrade teachers. Malnutrition remains a problem, and WFP supports both a schools feeding programme and a school building programme. Assistance is also provided by WFP to the secondary schools programme, with the aim of encouraging girls to remain in school. UNICEF is focusing mainly on primary education and seeks to respond to teacher development and the provision of learning materials. Four UNESCO-sponsored chairs have been created in coastal zone management, tropical medicine, environment and teacher development. During the 1999 joint annual review by the Government and donors of the education strategic plan, the United Nations agencies were instrumental in having HIV/AIDS introduced as a component.

Health

39. **Supporting sustainable standards of national health systems**. The Ministry of Health wants to substantially increase access to health services, in particular for mothers and children in rural areas, improve the quality of such services, reduce regional disparities and combat the major epidemics as a way of improving the very poor health indicators. Attempts to reduce the very high incidence of maternal mortality have been targeted in a joint programme by the World Health Organization (WHO), the United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF), UNFPA and WFP. Malaria remains Mozambique's biggest killer and also is one of the greatest disease burdens, which reduce productivity. Combating the epidemic is a governmental priority, and WHO and UNICEF are providing key technical support to the roll back malaria initiative in Mozambique. These two agencies have also begun a pilot programme to promote the home use of insecticide-impregnated mosquito nets throughout Zambezia province, and to ensure the availability of chloroquine from local shops so as to encourage early home-based treatment; this involves work with governmental bodies, non-governmental organizations and the private sector. UNICEF and WHO continue to support national immunization days and have been instrumental in returning vaccination levels to the high standard of the early 1990s. In 1999, WHO and UNICEF supported the Government in the conclusion of its three-year national vaccination campaign to eradicate polio, which involved extensive mobilization and the vaccination of virtually all children in the country. The United Nations system also works in areas which are of interest to the Government but not fashionable with donors, such as nutrition (WHO, UNICEF) and environmental health (WHO). United

Nations agencies are also involved in training and in the construction of new health facilities. The level of specialist care in the country is severely limited, and UNDP is managing a third-party financed programme to provide a core group of medical specialists in critical areas to the Maputo Central Hospital, as well as to all main provincial hospitals. The UNDP global project addressing the socio-economic reintegration of landmine victims will initiate an assessment of needs and some pilot activities in the coming year. Finally, other areas in which various United Nations agencies are involved include the development of health policy and of a national strategic plan for health, staff training, and the improvement of health services management.

Water and sanitation

40. **Increasing household access to safe water and adequate sanitation**. UNICEF is actively working in peri-urban and rural areas on hygiene and sanitation. This involves improved planning and popular mobilization, in partnership with non-governmental organizations and governmental bodies. Related to this is its work in the peripheral areas of four cities that have had cholera outbreaks. Under an integrated programme of water-point construction and community training in maintenance and management, UNICEF assisted an estimated 57,000 persons to gain access to safe water in Sofala, Nampula and Zambezia provinces. UNICEF also supported the development of a national water policy and the national sanitation strategy, both of which give a greater role to the participation of the private sector and communities in the implementation and management of these services. UNDP, which also supported the national sanitation strategy, managed its exit from the low-cost sanitation area in 1999 in coordination with UNICEF, after a cooperative effort with the Government and the Netherlands that saw expansion of the programme into rural areas and the introduction of a widely tested construction technology. UNDP continued its support to the implementation of the national water policy, assisting the National Water Directorate in defining public policies in the management of water resources and in promoting the reform process of the sector. Support was also provided to strengthen the participation of Mozambique in, and its input to, international negotiations on shared rivers, and funds were mobilized for a full-time representative at the regional water secretariat of the Southern African Development Community in Lesotho.

Strategic Objective Two: To foster the development of an enabling environment for sustainable human development and a culture of peace

41. Mine action demonstrates a way to foster a culture of peace, both through the employment of demobilized soldiers and the clearance of landmines and unexploded ordnance so as to allow land once again to be used for productive purposes.

Governance

42. **Strengthening of national institutions, economic management, decentralization processes and civil society**. National elections in 1999 provided a focus for work, but support for governance issues was much broader. UNDP is the main agency in this sector, coordinating donor funds and providing other support for the election administration (funding and technical support for the election process itself) and the parliamentary process (in particular in providing support for the secretariat). Police are being retrained under a broad reform programme, and there is support for improving the at present very weak judicial and prison systems. Decentralization is being supported with training so as to respond to the very low education levels of civil servants, and with the development of budget and planning systems. Good governance is also about creating an enabling environment for sustainable development and, in this context, UNDP is trying to promote more open policy debate which permits the development of alternative development frameworks and strategies. As part of this effort, UNDP published the first *Mozambique Human Development Report* in 1999. UNESCO, with its advocacy for the creation of a culture of peace, UNICEF, the programme of which is strongly oriented by the Convention on the Rights of the Child, and other agencies are also working with the Government and other partners on promoting a human rights approach to development, that is, that people have a right to development and that strategies must be adopted to ensure that these rights are guaranteed. The Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (FAO) assisted in the preparation of the regulations for the new land law. UNESCO and UNDP are supporting a programme for the development of

independence in the local media in order to increase debate and the flow of information. Improving statistical services receives support from the executing agencies in their areas of responsibility — the results of the 1997 Population and Housing Census were published in 1999, ahead of schedule. Although the war ended in 1992, the 1999 elections, as well as the prevailing high levels of poverty, showed that tensions remain, which underlines the importance of work by UNESCO and others in advocating a culture of peace.

43. The Office of the High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) has worked towards creating an enabling environment for the local integration of refugees in Mozambique. To this end, UNHCR has supported the Government in fulfilling its obligations, as outlined in the 1951 Convention relating to the Status of Refugees and the Convention Governing the Specific Aspects of Refugee Problems in Africa, adopted by the Organization of African Unity (OAU) in 1969. The support includes legal advice on eligibility procedures in accordance with Mozambican law, as well as the provision of assistance to refugees and asylum seekers in two refugee centres. The planned closure of the office at Maputo in 1999 has been postponed owing to the increasing numbers of refugees entering the country.

HIV/AIDS

44. **Supporting the development and implementation of a comprehensive multisectoral response to HIV/AIDS**. The highest priority of the United Nations system in Mozambique in 1999 was HIV/AIDS, and it is probably the area in which the United Nations had greatest impact. The United Nations system was instrumental in assisting the Government to draft an HIV/AIDS national strategic plan in 1999. Under a system of rotating leadership, UNFPA, UNDP, UNICEF, UNESCO, WFP and WHO were also involved in drawing up the national strategic plan. In some ways, HIV/AIDS shows the importance of the new thematic and cooperative structure of the United Nations system, because it means that the issue permeates all others, ranging from education to the question of food security for the families of people with HIV/AIDS. In addition, HIV/AIDS has become the central focus of another area under this objective — the special needs of children, youth and adolescents — with particular attention being paid to AIDS orphans, children infected by HIV/AIDS, and special prevention campaigns for young people. UNICEF is supporting the development of a programme for children orphaned because of AIDS. The HIV/AIDS theme group has also provided support for an awareness campaign focusing on AIDS in the workplace within government and has also launched an initiative within the United Nations system.

Gender

45. **Promoting gender equity and full and equal participation of women in economic and social development**. Gender assumed renewed impetus as an advocacy issue in 1999 under the leadership of UNFPA, and there have already been some successes. Building on the coordinated approach at work among the United Nations agencies, an expanded donor working group was formalized. At the output level, UNDP and UNFPA co-financed and supported the Government in the preparation of the first report on the Convention to Eliminate All Forms of Discrimination against Women. With the new Government, the Ministry of Social Action was transformed into the Ministry of Women and Social Action at the end of 1999 and will continue to have responsibility for gender activities agreed with the United Nations system. As part of the ongoing work in Zambezia province, UNFPA is supporting the development of the first provincial gender plan and UNICEF has worked with education directors in a pilot project which, in 1999, was shown to raise progress levels and achievement rates of girl pupils in schools.

Strategic Objective Three: To promote the sustainable management of natural resources

Environment and natural resource management

46. **Supporting land, forestry, air, and water conservation and use management**. The Mozambican master plan for the environment containing a national policy, legislation and strategy is reflected in the National Environment Management Programme. The overall objective is to address environmental management as a vital component of the working programme of the Government of Mozambique, aimed at poverty eradication and the creation of conditions for sustainable development. In 1999, the United Nations executing agencies, mainly UNDP and FAO, continued

to provide support to the Government of Mozambique in its efforts to reach a sustainable use of the natural resources in the country. The principal areas of focus were institutional development, policy development, including legislation, coordination of natural resource management, urban and coastal zone management, environmental promotion, education and training and intersectoral coordination. Assistance was also provided to the Ministry of Agriculture and Fisheries in the promotion of community participation in the management of natural resources. The assistance provided covered technical assistance and support for the preparation of legislation.

Disaster management

47. **Enhancing effective disaster management for prevention, preparedness and response.** Mozambique has suffered from a wide range of natural and man-made disasters. The Government's priority is to reduce the loss of life and damage to natural disasters and to protect vulnerable communities from natural and man-made disasters. With the aim of establishing mechanisms to respond when disasters occur, the Government sought WFP and UNDP assistance for the preparation of a new national disaster policy that was approved in 1999. This led to the setting up of the National Institute for the Management of Disasters. WFP supported the National Institute in the elaboration of national disaster profiles by type of calamity. A training project for disaster management was initiated in 1999 and is currently being implemented by WFP, with financing from UNDP.

Food security

48. **Supporting policies and programmes which enhance food access, availability and utilization.** Given the demographic profile of the country and the rural incidence of poverty, exacerbated by prevailing food insecurity in some rural areas and growing insecurity in the urban areas, most agencies have food security aspects in their programmes. FAO and UNDP, working in partnership with other donors, have been strongly involved in developing an implementation plan for the five-year agricultural programme for the family sector, ProAgri. The provision of support by UNDP in 1999 enabled the preparation of the first annual provincial plans and budgets, while FAO has continued to chair the donor coordination group and, in this capacity, interacts with the Ministry of Agriculture on a variety of operational and sensitive issues. FAO is implementing the special programme for food security, addressing various aspects of sustainable food security and forestry management. Further assistance was provided in the areas of wildlife and forestry legislation, marketing regulations and fostering private sector initiatives. The United Nations is supporting the Government in the implementation of a national food security and nutrition strategy, at both the provincial and national levels.

Other areas

49. The United Nations system still has important projects outside these areas. Demining will remain essential for Mozambique for many years to come, with an estimated 700,000 to 900,000 landmines still in place. UNDP supports the accelerated demining programme which operates in the three southern provinces, and is working with other partners to help improve the planning and management capacity of the national coordinating institute. UNICEF is the focal point in the United Nations system for mine awareness and education. Mozambique Island is a UNESCO World Heritage Site, and in 1999 UNESCO and UNDP co-hosted, with the Government, a donor conference to help to mobilize resources to rehabilitate the historic parts of the island and to improve conditions for the people who live there.

Looking ahead

50. Reconciliation and recovery in Mozambique have been remarkable but remain fragile and incomplete. Major floods in February 1999 and February 2000 illustrated how fragile the foundations of the country's recent economic performance remain and how much more work will be needed to reduce poverty to a level where the country can stand alone. At the time of preparation of the present report, Mozambique was facing devastating floods in the south and centre of the country that occurred in February-March 2000, and an estimated 490,000 persons had been displaced or trapped in isolated areas. Many of them had only resettled after the end of the civil conflict in 1992. In addition to considerable emergency aid, Mozambique will need substantial assistance for the rehabilitation and reconstruction of roads, railways, irrigation systems and factories, and the livelihoods of ordinary people. The United Nations system must continue to play its vital role in supporting the Government in

advocacy, priority setting and in mobilizing and directing development assistance towards broad-based human development.

Notes

[1] United Nations Development Programme, *Human Development Report, 1999* (New York, Oxford University Press, 1999).

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Item 116 (c) of the provisional agenda*
Human rights questions: human rights situations and reports of special rapporteurs and representatives

Situation of human rights in the Democratic Republic of the Congo

Note by the Secretariat**

1. In its resolution 2000/15 on the "Situation of human rights in the Democratic Republic of the Congo", which was endorsed by the Economic and Social Council in its decision 2000/248, the Commission on Human Rights requested the Special Rapporteurs on the situation of human rights in the Democratic Republic of the Congo and on extrajudicial, summary or arbitrary executions and a member of the Working Group on Enforced or Involuntary Disappearances to carry out, as soon as security considerations permit and, where appropriate, in cooperation with the National Commission of Inquiry to investigate alleged human rights violations and breaches of international humanitarian law in the Democratic Republic of the Congo (formerly Zaire) between 1996 and 1997, a joint mission to investigate all massacres carried out in the territory of the Democratic Republic of the Congo, including those in the province of South Kivu, and other atrocities as referred to in the report of the Special Rapporteur on the situation of human rights in the Democratic Republic of the Congo (E/CN.4/1999/31), with a view to bringing to justice those responsible, and to report to the General Assembly at its fifty-fifth session and to the Commission at its fifty-seventh session.

2. Although a ceasefire agreement was signed on 10 July 1999 in Lusaka by the six parties to the conflict, and then by the Movement for the Liberation of the Congo and the Rassemblement congolais pour la démocratie on 1 and 31 August respectively, the insecurity prevailing in the Democratic Republic of the Congo in

* A/55/150 and Corr.1 and 2.
** Interim report on resolution 2000/15 of the Commission on Human Rights and decision 2000/248 of the Economic and Social Council.

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general and in the province of South Kivu in particular has prevented the deployment of the joint mission of inquiry. Consequently, the joint mission will not be able to submit to the General Assembly, at its fifty-fifth session, the report the Commission had requested. The Special Rapporteur on the situation of human rights in the Democratic Republic of the Congo will nevertheless given an update on the situation of the joint mission of inquiry at the time of the presentation of his report (A/55/403) to the General Assembly.

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Strengthening of the coordination of humanitarian and disaster relief assistance of the United Nations, including special economic assistance: special economic assistance to individual countries or regions

Special assistance for the economic recovery and reconstruction of the Democratic Republic of the Congo

Report of the Secretary-General**

I. Introduction

1. In accordance with the provisions of General Assembly resolution 54/96 B, of 22 December 1999, the present report describes the financial and material assistance provided by the United Nations system to the Democratic Republic of the Congo in its economic recovery and reconstruction process.

II. General context of the Democratic Republic of the Congo

2. The area of the Democratic Republic of the Congo is 2,345,000 square kilometres, making it the third largest country in all Africa. It shares borders with nine other countries: the Republic of the Congo to the north-west, the Central African Republic to the north, the Sudan to the north-east, Uganda, Rwanda, Burundi and the United Republic of Tanzania to the east, Zambia to the south-east and Angola to the south-west.

3. The population of the Démocratic Republic of the Congo, growing as it is at an average rate of 3.1 per cent annually, must have reached over 49 million in 1998 and is likely to increase to over 50 million by the year 2000 and to over 80 million by 2015. It is very unevenly scattered over the national territory and, by 1975, close to 30 per cent of the population lived in urban areas. There are some 10 cities with between 100,000 and 600,000 inhabitants while the capital, Kinshasa, accounts for approximately 5 million of the country's 15 million city dwellers.

4. For more than four years the country has been experiencing a major crisis due to a succession of wars; the first, the so-called war of liberation, started in 1996 in the eastern part of the country and put an end to the Mobutu regime in May 1997. Just over a year later, on 2 August 1998, another war broke out, again in the eastern part of the country; its main goal was to establish a new political order in Kinshasa. This second war proved to be deadlier and more destructive than the first and resulted in the de facto partition of the country.

* A/55/150 and Corr.1 and 2.
** The footnote requested by the General Assembly in its resolution 54/248 was not included in the present submission.

00-62117 (E) 031000 091000

5. This new war, which continues even today, interrupted the process of democratization which had begun to show signs of reviving as a result of the change of political regime in May 1997 and has resulted in the de facto partition of the country into separate administrative poles. The protagonists in this war are the country's neighbours to the east — Burundi, Rwanda and Uganda — in a loose alliance with rebels now divided into three different and rival factions, and the Congolese Government supported, at its request, by Angola, Namibia and Zimbabwe, member countries of the Southern African Development Community.

6. While the war has been going on, there have been several attempts to reorganize the political space in the Democratic Republic of the Congo, although against a background of disagreement. On 29 January 1999, the President of the Republic signed two Decree-Laws on the organization and operation of political parties and associations and the regulation of non-profit organizations and public utility services. He also initiated the process for the establishment of a constituent and legislative assembly; the latter met for the first time on 17 August 2000. The Government also set up people's power committees which are presented not only as grass-roots organizations but also as an institution of the republic and therefore on the Government payroll. The committees are being strongly and publicly challenged by a significant minority of political actors who fear that this may be a roundabout way of going back to a one-party system.

7. There have been several attempts to bring the belligerents to the negotiating table in order to put an end to the war but they have been unsuccessful. At the initiative of the Organization of African Unity (OAU), they did, however, sign a ceasefire agreement in Lusaka, on 10 July 1999. The agreement was accompanied by a procedure for the peaceful settlement of the conflict and for the restoration of peace. The procedure involves, inter alia, the sending of a neutral military observer mission under the auspices of the United Nations, the opening of inter-Congolese political negotiations leading to the establishment of a new institutional order, the sending of a United Nations interposition force and the orderly withdrawal of foreign forces. The Security Council, which authorized the deployment of military liaison officers starting in August 1999, established in resolution 1279 (1999) of 30 November 1999 the United Nations Organization Mission in the Democratic Republic of the Congo (MONUC).

8. Unfortunately, little headway has been made with implementation of the above-mentioned agreement due, on the one hand, to the various difficulties created by the belligerents and even between allies — the most blatant being the confrontation that occurred between Ugandan and Rwandan troops in Kisangani from 5 to 10 June 2000 — and, on the other, to the rejection by the Government of the Democratic Republic of the Congo of the facilitator designated for the inter-Congolese dialogue, Sir Ketumile Masire, former President of Botswana.

9. The current armed conflict, which extends over more than half the national territory, has thwarted most of the efforts to stabilize and revive the national economy, reversed the nation's reconstruction priorities and blocked all attempts by the new Government to restore structured international cooperation.

10. Despite its enormous potential and the favourable economic situation it enjoyed in the early 1960s, the Democratic Republic of the Congo is now in a very difficult economic, financial and social situation. This vast territory which has immense natural (mineral, agricultural, forestry, energy and other) resources continues to have some of the lowest social indicators in the world and is classified among the poorest countries in the world. According to the *Human Development Report 2000*,[1] the Democratic Republic of the Congo ranks 152nd out of the 174 countries evaluated with a human development index value of 0.430, among the lowest in the world.

11. The sombre economic situation, which was very noticeable in 1999, persisted during the first half of 2000. The macroeconomic environment continues to be marked by the after-effects of the war, which has caused production to shrink sharply, and by government measures which have for the most part proved counter-productive. The country continues to experience galloping inflation and monetary instability and to run a fiscal deficit while resorting to advances from the central bank; its external debt remains very heavy and the social climate is extremely tense.

12. For 2000, the Government has seen fit to set itself goal of 1 per cent economic growth against a background of 3.2 per cent population growth. Although this goal is almost unattainable it is one of the bases of the macroeconomic framework

underpinning the State's budget estimates. The budget, which was adopted in June 2000, provides for a revenue of 821,120,000 United States dollars as against 1,110,000,000 dollars in expenditures, leaving a deficit of 287,140,000 dollars, which amounts to 25.9 per cent of overall expenditures.

13. These estimates contrast sharply with the way public finances have evolved since 1990. In 1998, revenue came to only $375.5 million as compared with estimates of $680.8 million, that is, 66.2 per cent of the target. For the financial year 1999, the budget performance report showed a large deficit which was financed entirely through direct advances from the central bank. As at 31 December 1999, Government revenue came to only $227,213,000 as against expenditures of $454,533,000.

III. Level of production

14. At the end of 1999, the central bank estimated the growth rate of the Congolese economy at -14 per cent as compared with -3.5 per cent in 1998. Given the continued fighting and the Government's apparent lack of clear economic options, as well as the delay in preparing a budget for 2000, the outlook for 2000 is not promising. Given the decline in production in certain sectors, as shown in the following table, it would seem that the Congolese economy is likely to continue its downward trend.

1999-2000	*Copper*	*Cobalt*	*Coffee*	*Diamonds*	*Natural wood*
November	361	270	1 095	1 795	1 083
December	265	238	2 746	1 596	1 297
January	157	48	1 030	2 084	178
February	109	71	698	1 154	750

Source: Central bank. Summary of statistical data, 14 April 2000, Kinshasa.

A. Inflation and exchange rate

15. Since the start of 1999, the Congolese economy has been characterized by general price level volatility. The strong inflationary trend observed during the first half of the year quickened during the second half and by December inflation had reached 48 per cent. Whereas during the first six months inflation averaged at 10.8 per cent, in the latter half of the year it averaged at 22.4 per cent.

16. During the first three months of 2000, the general price level rose on average by 13.1 per cent per month as compared with 3.1 per cent in 1999. As for the exchange rate, the difference between the black market rate and the official rate increased from 239 per cent in January to 333 per cent in March 2000. These developments reflect the inadequacy of the measures the Government has taken to influence the economic situation.

B. Monetary situation

17. Between December 1999 and March 2000, the money supply increased by 40 per cent. This is a result of the Government's systematic and massive use of advances from the central bank in an environment characterized by the absence, until June 2000, of a finance act for the current financial year.

C. External debt and official development assistance

18. The country's external debt is completely unsustainable. Between 1985 and 1998, it rose from $6.2 billion (93 per cent of GNP) to $13 billion (208.2 per cent of GNP) while debt servicing payments accounted for 24.8 per cent and 1.2 per cent of earnings from the export of goods and services. The flow of official development assistance (ODA) to the Democratic Republic of the Congo amounted to only $269.1 million in 1992, the year that structural cooperation was suspended, and it fell to $125.6 million in 1998 (respectively 3.3 per cent and 2 per cent of GNP for those years). In other words, the amount of ODA the country received in 1992 and 1998 was just 6.7 and 2.6 dollars per capita.

D. Social and humanitarian situation

19. The severe economic and social crisis affecting the Democratic Republic of the Congo has made it impossible to maintain and replace minimum economic and social infrastructure, resulting in a deterioration of the social and health situation of the population. This is reflected in:

(a) The low percentage of public expenditure on the social sector due to the termination of all bilateral cooperation (between 1992 and 1995, 0.7 per cent of the budget was allocated to health and 0.6 per cent to education);

(b) Life expectancy at birth of 51.2 years in 1998 (52.7 years for women and 49.6 years for men) as compared with 53 years in 1987. This decline is due to an increase in mortality: infant mortality rose from 127 to 137 per 1,000 live births, the under -5 mortality rose from 213 to 220 per 1,000 live births and maternal mortality rose from 1,870 to 2,000 per 100,000 live births. These unusually high rates indicate a serious human/demographic disaster overshadowed by the impact of the war. It is estimated that: (i) of the 2,360,000 to 2,500,000 babies born each year, over 203,000 die during their first week of life, over 323,000 die before their first birthday and over 518,000 die before their fifth birthday; (ii) between 47,000 and 50,000 women die every year in childbirth, including over 6,000 in Kinshasa; and (iii) the unusually high number of maternal deaths is due, in part, to illegal abortions that often result in death (30 per cent of girls under the age of 19, or roughly 700,000 girls aged between 12 and 19 years, have abortions);

(c) An adult literacy rate of 58.9 per cent (41 per cent for women and 71.3 per cent for men) in 1998, as compared with 62 per cent in 1985;

(d) The fact that a considerable proportion of the population does not have access to basic services: 41 per cent to health care; 58 per cent to safe drinking water; 82 per cent to health services;

(e) Continuing and unchecked population movements caused by the war and the considerable increase in the number of displaced people, especially in Ituri in Orientale province, where 150,000 people fled from the clashes that broke out between the Hema and Lendu ethnic groups from June to December 1999;

(f) The war has caused such displacements of the Congolese population that its current geographic distribution can no longer be used as a basis for reliable planning.

20. The foregoing indicates the enormity of the task at hand, the alarming social impact of the ongoing war as well as the tragic impact on the country's population groups of a number of political and economic measures. The ever-increasing challenges call first and foremost for the restoration of peace in order to permit the implementation of a policy conducive to economic recovery and job creation — the most important factor in reducing poverty; and the preparation and implementation of a national poverty alleviation plan for those population groups that cannot automatically benefit from a resumption of economic growth. The plan would take into account the concerns of the most vulnerable sectors of the population, including women, children, unemployed youth and persons infected with HIV/AIDS.

IV. Economic measures and options

21. The macroeconomic situation of the Democratic Republic of the Congo has been stagnating since 1990. In its report on the post-war reconstruction of the Congolese State and economy, the Government outlines its strategy for overcoming the crisis and notes that the socio-economic situation deteriorated in 1998 and worsened still further in 1999. None of the actions outlined in the report have been implemented, nor have any steps been taken to even develop them further.

22. The current political and military climate in the country is not conducive to the formulation or implementation of genuine national development strategies and plans. On the one hand, due to the partition of the country and the prevailing climate of insecurity, the Government has not been able to collect all the tax and customs revenues it can expect to collect in peacetime. It is therefore unable to honour most of its commitments, including in terms of the repayment of the public debt, coverage of the financial needs of the social sectors and Government counterpart funding of development projects. On the other hand, the Government has to address urgent, increasing defence needs directly related to the war.

23. In mid-1999, the unofficial exchange rate for the United States dollar was 10 Congolese francs as compared with the official rate of 4.5 Congolese francs. The Government took a series of economic measures to try to stabilize the foreign exchange market but this only fuelled further currency speculation. Among other things, those measures: (a) prohibited the possession of foreign currency by any individuals; (b) set prices for foodstuffs that are considered strategic; (c) closed all private foreign exchange bureaux and opened Central Bank foreign exchange bureaux at the Kinshasa border posts.

24. Since 22 January 2000, the interbank exchange rate has risen from 4.5 to 9 Congolese francs for 1 dollar. The price of fuel was not adjusted until 8 February when it jumped from 3 to 9 Congolese francs per litre. In the wake of these measures, the International Monetary Fund (IMF) organized a mission to Kinshasa to evaluate the results of various economic decisions taken by the Government, including in the area of monetary management. After concluding that those results were very poor, the Fund made several recommendations, including the establishment of a timetable for merging the official and unofficial exchange rates and granting authorization for the possession and use of United States dollars for commercial transactions.

25. In early March 2000, free currency areas were established in order to implement the new foreign exchange provisions liberalizing the possession and use of foreign currency, especially in the mining areas and airports, for export and import transactions and for other interbank transactions.

26. Some major events during 1999 and 2000 had significant consequences on the socio-economic situation of the Democratic Republic of the Congo. They included the setting and maintenance of the official exchange rate at levels well below the unofficial rate and restrictions on the use of foreign currency. Following the visit to the country last February of the Associate Administrator of the United Nations Development Programme, who had been sent by the Secretary-General of the United Nations, the Government granted the United Nations agencies a preferential exchange rate of 22.5 Congolese francs for 1 dollar (a rate used for the year 2000 State budget). On 10 June 2000, it fixed a new interbank exchange rate of 23.5 Congolese francs to 1 dollar. Prices of petroleum products were immediately increased; the price of a litre of petrol rose from 9 to 25 Congolese francs.

27. It should be noted that the measures taken in June occurred during the visit to Kinshasa of a large World Bank delegation. The declared goal of the 15-member mission was to assess the prospects of formulating an interim World Bank assistance strategy for the Democratic Republic of the Congo which could be approved by the Bank's Executive Board in September 2000.

V. Situation and challenges relating to governance

28. In early 2000, President Kabila organized a meeting during which he announced his intention of quickly setting up a constituent and legislative Assembly consisting of 300 members. To that end, he established a 15-member preparatory committee to:

(a) Formulate procedures for implementing the provisions of the constitutional decree-law concerning the constituent and legislative Assembly;

(b) Define the eligibility criteria for parliamentary candidates and discuss a variety of questions relating to the establishment of the Assembly;

(c) Organize and supervise elections under the Ministry of the Interior.

29. It was not until 31 August 1999 that the remaining rebel factions signed the Lusaka Ceasefire Agreement, which had been signed on 10 July 1999 by the presidents of Angola, the Democratic Republic of the Congo, Namibia, Rwanda, Uganda and Zambia, as well as by one of the rebel factions. In order to speed up its implementation, the Security Council held a series of special meetings on Africa from 24 to 31 January 2000. The main outcome thereof was the adoption, on 24 February, of Security Council resolution 1291 (2000), whereby the Council decided to:

(a) Extend the mandate of the United Nations Organization Mission in the Democratic Republic of the Congo (MONUC) until 31 August 2000 and expand it up to 5,537 military personnel, including 500 observers, and appropriate civilian support staff;

(b) Establish, under the overall authority of the Special Representative of the Secretary-General, a joint structure with the Joint Military Commission (JMC) that would ensure close coordination during the period of deployment of MONUC.

30. Since the role of MONUC is to ensure that peace is restored to the Democratic Republic of the Congo, it should be used by the Congolese Government and other parties involved in the war in that country as a mechanism for the peaceful settlement of the conflict. Unfortunately, since the Lusaka Ceasefire Agreement was signed, the parties involved in the war have been accusing each other of violating the ceasefire. The

most unstable front is in the north-west, where clashes between troops of the Movement for the Liberation of the Congo and troops allied to the Kinshasa Government have been routinely reported. In this unstable climate, which is a source of particular concern, there have, regrettably, been many reports of massacres of innocent people, destruction of economic and social infrastructure and plundering of natural resources of the Democratic Republic of the Congo by the occupying armies that support the three rebel movements.

31. The three extremely violent and destructive clashes between the regular armies of Uganda and Rwanda in the country's third largest city, Kisangani, during which heavy weapons were used, are even more alarming. The clashes of June 2000 were the most devastating in terms of the number of innocent civilians killed, destruction of infrastructure (government buildings, hospitals, schools, private dwellings), humanitarian disaster (lack of health care and food, risk of epidemics) and the serious psychological impact on the population. The fighting went on for several days, preventing MONUC from implementing the decision that had just been taken to demilitarize the town, and preventing the humanitarian agencies from assisting the victims. As soon as hostilities ended, United Nations agencies began airlifting food and medicine to the beleaguered population of Kisangani from Kinshasa and the town of Goma in the east of the country.

32. On the initiative of the heads of the religious groups present in the Democratic Republic of the Congo, a national consultation was held from 29 February to 11 March 2000 with the main objective of clearing the way for the inter-Congolese political negotiations provided for in the Lusaka Ceasefire Agreement. At the end of the session, recommendations were made to the Government, the armed opposition, the peaceful opposition, the Congolese people and the international community. The following are the most important:

(a) *The Government* should liberalize the activities of political parties, dissolve such structures as the people's power committees, establish a transitional parliament, form a Government open to other political views and led by a prime minister, revise the Lusaka Agreement, taking into account that it overlook certain points;

(b) *The peaceful opposition* should encourage patriotism and cease turning to foreign powers for validation of their power and resolution of domestic problems;

(c) *The international community* should condemn the aggression against the Congolese people and fully and unconditionally respect the sovereignty and territorial integrity of the Democratic Republic of the Congo.

33. The final report and recommendations of the national consultation were submitted to the President of the Republic, who, in a formal address, expressed his disapproval for the most part.

34. Subsequently, the Government has done nothing but hinder any attempt to promote the holding of the inter-Congolese dialogue called for in the Lusaka Agreement. In particular, the Government has just rejected the facilitator designated by Organization of African Unity (OAU).

VI. Situation and challenges of sustainable economic and human development

35. The situation in the area of sustainable human development is worsening from year to year and the challenges are increasing as a result of the chronic instability which characterizes the political, economic, social and security environment in the Democratic Republic of the Congo. The analysis contained in last year's report remains valid. Its major points are reviewed below:

(a) With 125 million hectares of forest covering half its territory, the Democratic Republic of the Congo possesses 47 per cent of the African tropical forests and 6 per cent of the world's reserves. This wealth is being exploited to some extent, although the wildlife parks and flora in the eastern part of the country were severely damaged between 1994 and 1997 by the influx of refugees and displaced persons, which caused serious problems of erosion, deforestation and over-exploitation of natural resources. The situation has been aggravated by the conflict which has again been raging in the country since August 1998, and which followed the one that lasted from September 1996 to May 1997;

(b) The Democratic Republic of the Congo has endorsed the recommendations of the United Nations Conference on Environment and Development and has adopted the Agenda 21 guidelines. It has ratified and signed a number of conventions on desertification, biodiversity, climate change, the Montreal Protocol on Substances that Deplete the Ozone Layer, the Wetland Convention and the Convention on International Trade in Endangered Species of Wild Fauna and Flora. The Democratic Republic of the Congo has already begun to formulate, with the support of United Nations agencies, strategies and plans of action to ensure the sustainable utilization and conservation of its resources;

(c) Since most donors have expressed the desire to carry out their future activities within the framework of a coherent programme of medium- and long-term reconstruction and socio-economic development, it will be necessary to start with immediate steps to strengthen the capacity of all the partners in national life (public institutions and civil society, including the private sector) in the areas of the formulation of development strategies and policies and monitoring of their execution.

VII. Cooperation between the Democratic Republic of the Congo and the United Nations

36. The profound political and socio-economic crisis which erupted in the Democratic Republic of the Congo in 1992 and which continues to this day, resulting in, among other things, the suspension of cooperation programmes between the Democratic Republic of Congo and most of its partners, has considerably reduced the possibilities of mobilizing resources for development activities. Therefore, taking into account the deterioration of social conditions and the difficulties in establishing the democratization process in the country (severe economic crisis, ethnic conflicts causing population displacement, influx of refugees from Rwanda, etc.), most partners have established humanitarian assistance programmes through non-governmental organizations.

37. Despite this situation, the United Nations agencies have continued their cooperation programmes while adapting them to the demands of the new context. Humanitarian activities have constituted a major part of the activities undertaken, but support to development activities has also continued. Aside from the United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF), which has been able to draw up a country programme, all the other development agencies are executing interim programmes. The Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR) continues to carry out its assistance programmes for refugees in the reception zones; these programmes have a positive impact on the local populations.

38. Within the framework of the implementation of the Secretary-General's reform programme, the agencies of the United Nations system have adopted the principle of synchronization, based on the Government's triennial programme, of their programming cycles, beginning in 2000. This synchronization has not been put into effect because of the ongoing crisis. Nevertheless, they have begun the formulation of a Common Country Assessment, which should be available in August 2000. As soon as the situation returns to normal, the process of formulating the United Nations Development Assistance Framework will begin.

39. Interventions by agencies of the United Nations system which have gone beyond emergency humanitarian assistance have covered the following areas:

(a) Health, including the fight against AIDS: World Health Organization (WHO), United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA), UNICEF, UNHCR, UNDP;

(b) Education: United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO), UNDP, UNICEF, UNFPA, UNHCR;

(c) Governance: UNDP, Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights, UNFPA;

(d) Management of development: UNDP, UNFPA, World Bank and IMF;

(e) Agriculture, rural development and environment: Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (FAO), UNDP, World Food Programme (WFP), United Nations Office for Project Services (UNOPS);

(f) Humanitarian: UNHCR, WFP UNDP, Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs

(OCHA), WHO, UNICEF, UNFPA, Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights, ILO;

(g) Infrastructure: United Nations Capital Development Fund (UNCDF), UNDP, UNOPS, UNICEF, UNHCR;

(h) Employment/labour: International Labour Organization (ILO), UNDP.

40. However, it must be noted that their efforts are seriously handicapped by certain decisions of the authorities of the Democratic Republic of the Congo, in particular the monetary measures to fix the exchange rate of the national currency. This particular measure has brought about major erosion of budgets allocated to cooperation programmes, thereby diminishing their impact in the field. The special rate of 22.5 Congolese francs to 1 dollar granted by the Government to the agencies is far from resolving the problem, considering that the unofficial rate is going up. This is even more true since that special rate is now lower than the interbank rate of 23.5 Congolese francs to the dollar.

41. Furthermore regrettably, official development assistance has been regrettably, drastically reduced, subsequent to the deteriorating relations between the Democratic Republic of the Congo and its major development partners since the beginning of the 1990s. On this specific point, the conference of those partners (Meeting of Friends of the Congo) held at Brussels in December 1997, which examined with the Government the possibility of implementing the emergency programme of economic recovery and stabilization of the Democratic Republic of the Congo and resuming of structural cooperation, has not lived up to its promises. The unleashing of the fighting in August 1998 provided an additional motive for delaying the desired resumption.

42. Since certain partners of the Democratic Republic of the Congo later stated that they intended to resume their cooperation programmes, the various sectoral programmes formulated with the financial and technical support of the specialized agencies will, when the time comes, serve as supporting documents for meetings to mobilize resources and/or for dialogues (advisory groups, round tables, sectoral and thematic consultations). For the moment, only the European Union and Belgium have officially confirmed their decision to resume unconditionally their structural cooperation with the Democratic Republic of the Congo.

43. In order to relieve the suffering of the vulnerabl masses, UNDP, FAO, ILO, WFP and UNICEF hav conducted, coordinated and complementary activiti targeting the vulnerable groups to find a way out of th crisis. These activities have been made particularl necessary by population displacements caused by th war and by the fragile economy, which hav exacerbated the food security problems alread existing in 1998.

44. Since July 1999, FAO has been implementing a emergency agricultural project with UNDP financing representing an emergency response to the food crisi in Kinshasa and Lubumbashi. In Kinshasa, the targe beneficiaries of agricultural and livestock input include 18,000 households through the marke gardening component, 2,000 households through th small animal husbandry component, 10,000 household for strengthening of food production in the area around the capital, and 13,000 households through th seed propagation component. In Lubumbashi, th project targets 2,000 households (of whom 1,000 ar families displaced by the war) for the market gardenin component and 2,000 for the seed propagatio component. Furthermore, with their food-for-wor programme, WFP, FAO and UNDP have succeeded i bringing land on the outskirts of Kinshasa int cultivation so that over 3,000 households can grow rice. In collaboration with FAO, UNHCR provide farming tools and a variety of seeds to refugees an local residents in Bas-Congo province.

45. Under a memorandum of agreement signe between UNHCR and WFP, those two agencies have been fully involved in almost all programmes o assistance to refugees. In Bas-Congo and Bandundu provinces, major food assistance has been furnished t refugees from Angola and the Republic of the Cong who came to the Democratic Republic of the Cong between June 1998 and January 1999. UNHCR and UNICEF have collaborated on the health/nutrition and social components by distributing "baby kits" t refugee women who have just given birth and assisting together with WFP, in supplying biscuits, corn-soya blend and medicines. They have also provided significant support in the Angolan refugee camps in Katanga province.

46. In support of vulnerable groups, ILO, with UNDP financing, has implemented a programme of micro-credit for the physically handicapped and other vulnerable groups in Kinshasa. Over 600 recipients of

this credit have begun micro-projects in handicrafts, animal husbandry, soap-making or processing of agricultural products. For its part, the contact group composed of certain embassies and specialized agencies (UNHCR, UNDP-OCHA and the Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights), have made a great contribution to the protection of individuals at risk, some of whom have been allowed to leave the territory of the Democratic Republic of the Congo safely.

47. UNICEF contributed to the revitalization of the educational system by supporting 150 mixed primary schools, providing equipment and textbooks and training for faculty. It also implemented a project for the development of psycho-social skills. UNESCO, in close cooperation with the Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights, renovated the library and obtained texts and materials for the Faculty of Law at the University of Kinshasa. Moreover, in the context of promoting a culture of peace, it held an International Literacy Day with the Ministry of Social Affairs and the Family.

48. With UNDP financing and with WHO as the initiator and executing agency, two projects contributed to health care reform and implementation of the complete overhaul of the health care system, respectively. Under the UNDP/WHO project, 339 directors of health care zones have received training in management of primary health care and epidemiological monitoring.

49. The Joint United Nations Programme on HIV/AIDS support continued with the implementation of a letter of agreement with the Government, signed in 1996 and revised in 1999. Under this letter of agreement, the National AIDS Control Programme received support for, inter alia:

(a) The operation of the national structure and 11 provincial AIDS control structures, including logistical support and monitoring;

(b) The provision of inputs and, in particular, 20,000 tests and kits for surgeons and dentists.

50. Moreover, within the framework of the Strategic Planning and Programme Development Fund, funds were mobilized for the finalization and adoption of national policy documents (strategic national plan, three-year master plan and national policy plan). These documents were endorsed by the General Meeting on Health in December 1999.

51. With financing from UNDP, the United Nations Office for Project Services implemented a project to promote female leadership, which included the formulation of a national programme for the advancement of women, which has since been adopted by the Government. Also within the framework of this project, a number of training seminars for trainers were organized by female entrepreneurs, particularly in the processing of local agricultural products. Moreover, within the framework of the microcredit programme, ILO, with UNDP financing, extended loans, particularly to women, a group of whom organized an agricultural cooperative which is today a shining example of the success of poverty eradication activities.

52. UNDP supported the Government in the elaboration of its national programme for national capacity-building in economic management. This programme, which is very highly regarded by all donors, including the Bretton Woods institutions, covers all areas, inter alia: elaboration and dissemination of statistics, analyses and studies of underlying macroeconomic policies, programming, follow-up and evaluation of public expenditure, mobilization and coordination of external assistance, streamlining of the civil service administration and reform of the administration of justice. UNDP will coordinate its implementation.

53. With a view to supporting the preparation and elaboration of the first national human development report, a workshop was also organized by the Government and UNDP for officials of technical government ministries, university professors, high-level officials of financial institutions, agency heads in the United Nations system and leaders of non-governmental development organizations. A National Human Development Steering Committee, which will prepare the first national report on the global theme of governance, has been operational since early 2000.

54. With financial assistance from other agencies of the United Nations system and outside donors, the Office of the United Nations Commissioner for Human Rights organized a training session on human rights documentation techniques designed for non-governmental human rights organizations. It sponsored and supported a judiciary assistance and legal

education project. UNHCR, for its part, trained officials of the Ministry of the Interior in the management of emergency situations.

VIII. Humanitarian strategy of the United Nations

55. The United Nations has continually advocated a humanitarian strategy centred on actions that would tangibly strengthen the Lusaka peace process. To this end, stress has been laid on the following components: reintegration of displaced persons and refugees, social reintegration of demobilized troops, reopening of vital economic and trade routes, demobilization of child soldiers, support to initiatives for the cohabitation of populations in certain provinces and the promotion of human rights.

56. The agencies of the United Nations system carried out two consolidated Appeal exercises for the Democratic Republic of the Congo. Presented in Geneva on 22 July and 24 November 1999, the results unfortunately fell short of what the humanitarian actors had hoped for:

(a) First half of 1999: of $17 million requested (excluding regional requests from WFP and UNHCR), less than $3.1 million was obtained (meaning that only 18 per cent of the request was granted);

(b) Second half of 1999: of $60 million requested, $5 million was received for assistance in areas other than food and refugees (equal to 21 per cent of this portion of the Appeal). Approximately 40 per cent of the food portion of the Appeal was covered. As for assistance to refugees, financing was gradually received to provide minimum assistance for severe emergencies triggered by the influx of refugees from Angola and the Republic of the Congo.

57. The direct humanitarian commitment of the United Nations in the Democratic Republic of the Congo was extended by a number of other initiatives, in particular:

(a) The secondment to Durba, in Orientale province in the occupied area, of Congolese epidemiologists and the delivery of medical material in the wake of the outbreak of cases of Marburg-type haemorrhagic fever (akin to Ebola) in this town;

(b) National vaccination days against poliomyelitis which gave rise to another direct flight across the conflict zones. Organized by the Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs and UNDP, the mission included representatives of WHO, UNICEF, UNFPA and the Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights and was able to visit the occupied areas in the eastern part of the country. The next national vaccination days are scheduled for 7 to 9 July, 11 to 13 August and 15 to 17 September 2000;

(c) The direct repatriation by UNHCR of several hundred voluntary returnees from Mbuji-Mayi (Kasaï-Oriental), in the government-controlled zone, to Burundi. UNHCR relied on local non-governmental organizations to oversee certain refugee camps. These activities continued in 2000 with hundreds of other persons being voluntarily repatriated to Rwanda, in particular. The same holds true for the repatriation of nationals of the Republic of the Congo and Angolan refugees from the Cabinda enclave back to their region of origin. In the part of the country which is not controlled by the Government of Kinshasa, residual groups of Rwandan refugees from Goma also continue to be repatriated to Rwanda.

IX. Prospects for reconstruction

58. Last year, the report submitted to the General Assembly stressed that the current crisis should not obscure the opportunities for change available to the Democratic Republic of the Congo. This warning is particularly relevant today, at a time when hope has been generated by the Congolese populations' desire to come to an agreement on the collective administration of their country's affairs.

59. Hence, the determination of the United Nations to ensure the rapid departure of the foreign armed forces from the territory of the Democratic Republic of the Congo is also a great source of hope for the return to a situation of lasting peace. In order to overcome the impending crisis, substantial assistance from the international community will have to accompany the country's reconstruction efforts, consistent with the priority themes outlined in the previous report (A/54/278), which must still be considered. Once again, they were:

Theme 1
Peace, security and reconciliation

60. It was recognized that the introduction of a framework of peace and reconciliation is a sine qua non for the creation of an environment conducive to the rehabilitation and recovery of the human development process. The activities to be undertaken in this area must necessarily reflect the political decision makers' will to strengthen the peace process. This dynamic should be supported by the provision of the appropriate material and technical resources to the various bodies established to maintain this process.

Theme 2
Preparing a stabilization, reconstruction and recovery strategy

61. Current support to the Government to enable it to prepare a development strategy which includes the dimensions of financial stabilization, reform, reconstruction and development should be pursued and strengthened. The solutions the Government should pursue remain unchanged from the previous years. They are:

(a) The participatory elaboration of strategies and a programme for economic stabilization and recovery and the assignment of a more realistic definition of priorities and improved role-sharing by the various actors;

(b) The creation of an environment conducive to attracting private-sector investments;

(c) Efforts to find an appropriate solution, in consultation with the main creditors, to the problem of the heavy external debt.

62. Already, the Government is making efforts to prepare the above-mentioned programme in order to facilitate its implementation as soon as the minimum conditions of peace and security have been established. This is reflected in the expanded dialogue with its main development partners, namely, the African Development Bank, the World Bank, IMF, the European Union, certain bilateral cooperation agencies, a number of agencies of the United Nations system in general and UNDP in particular. Since the final quarter of 1999, a number of important missions of these partners, led by high-level leaders, have been received in the Democratic Republic of the Congo.

Theme 3
Resumption of structural cooperation

63. As recommended by the previous report the Government launched discussions with IMF, the World Bank and its other main partners with a view to the effective resumption of structural cooperation with the international community. Initially, a mechanism will have to be agreed on for addressing the debt problem through the use of new facilities for countries emerging from an armed conflict within the framework of the Heavily Indebted Poor Countries Debt Initiative. Such an arrangement would send a strong signal in favour of the resumption of macroeconomic dialogue and structural cooperation with the development partners.

Notes

[1] *Human Development Report 2000* (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.00.III.B.8).

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Transit environment in the landlocked States in Central Asia and their transit developing neighbours

Note by the Secretary-General**

The Secretary-General has the honour to submit to the General Assembly, as requested in its resolution 53/171 of 15 December 1998, the report prepared by the Secretary-General of the United Nations Conference on Trade and Development on the transit environment in the landlocked States of Central Asia and their transit neighbours.

* A/55/150.

** There was a slight delay in the submission of this document owing to pressure of work in the preparations for the Third United Nations Conference on the Least Developed Countries.

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Report of the Secretary-General of the United Nations Conference on Trade and Development on the transit environment in the landlocked States of Central Asia and their transit neighbours

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I. Introduction

1. The General Assembly, in paragraph 6 of resolution 53/171 of 15 December 1998, entitled "Transit environment in the landlocked States in Central Asia and their transit developing neighbours", requested the Secretary-General of the United Nations Conference on Trade and Development (UNCTAD) to prepare a report on the implementation of that resolution, to be submitted to the General Assembly at its fifty-fifth session. The present report, prepared in response to that request, covers developments relevant to paragraphs 2 to 5 of the resolution, which are as follows:

(a) The elaboration of a programme for improving the efficiency of the current transit environment in the newly independent and developing landlocked States in Central Asia and their transit developing neighbours;

(b) The provision of technical assistance and advisory services to the newly independent landlocked States in Central Asia and their transit developing neighbours, taking into account the relevant transit transport agreements;

(c) The provision, to the newly independent and developing landlocked States in Central Asia and their transit developing neighbours, of appropriate financial and technical assistance for the improvement of the transit environment, including construction, maintenance and improvement of their transport, storage and other transit-related facilities and improved communications;

(d) Possible ways of promoting more cooperative arrangements between landlocked States in Central Asia and their transit developing neighbours, and to encourage a more active support role on the part of the donor community.

2. With respect to subparagraph (a) above, a number of studies have been completed since the adoption of resolution 53/171 and others are under way, in particular in UNCTAD, the Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific (ESCAP), the Economic Commission for Europe (ECE), the Asian Development Bank (ADB), the European Bank for Reconstruction and Development (EBRD) and through the European Union's TRACECA (Transport Corridor: Europe-Caucasus-Asia) programme. The recommendations made in those studies have paved the way for a broad range of programmes and projects designed to improve the transport infrastructure and address outstanding non-physical barriers.

3. As regards subparagraphs (b) to (d) above, the present report indicates the major ongoing financial and technical assistance projects of relevance to the improvement of the transit environment of the Central Asian countries and their transit developing neighbours.

II. Economic recovery and the emerging trade and transit patterns in Central Asia

A. Basic economic indicators and growth prospects

4. The Central Asian countries, during the first decade of their independence, have been grappling with the problems of transition to market-based economy, a struggle that is likely to spill over into the next decade. The pace of recovery and development in Central Asia has not been shared equally among countries or, for

that matter, between economic sectors within individual countries, but the general thrust appears to be satisfactory.

5. In a report issued in 1996, the Secretary-General described the many difficulties that were then facing the landlocked countries of Central Asia (see A/51/288). In particular, he observed that the impact of economic change in Central Asia had caused: (a) severe economic contraction; (b) loss of markets for both raw materials and industrial products from the region; (c) a precipitous fall in real gross domestic product (GDP) which fell between 30 and 50 per cent; (d) bank retrenchment, with numerous failures and a fall in savings and investment; (e) spectacular dislocation of the transport system; and (f) a dramatic rise in unemployment.

6. In a subsequent report issued in 1998 (A/53/331), the Secretary-General was pleased to note a change for the better, notably: (a) signs of economic recovery and the emergence of new markets for exports and imports; (b) significant investment on the main alternative transit transport corridors; (c) the increasing impact of technical assistance projects on institutional restructuring in the transport sector; (d) enhanced regional cooperation through the drafting and adoption, at the highest level, of multilateral framework agreements related to transit; and (e) moves to develop the human resource base in Central Asia.

7. Although economic recovery was slowed by the Russian financial crisis of 1998, economies in Central Asia recovered in 1999 and are expected to continue to grow during 2000 and 2001. Overall GDP growth in the region is estimated to have been 0.8 per cent in 1998,[1] 2.8 per cent in 1999 and is forecast to reach 4.9 per cent in 2000. In 1999, Kazakhstan experienced GDP growth of 1.7 per cent, Kyrgyzstan 3.6 per cent, Tajikistan 3.7 per cent, and Turkmenistan and Uzbekistan 4.4 per cent.[2] Inflation in the region jumped from 11.4 per cent in 1998 to 21.9 per cent in 1999, but is expected to drop to 15.1 per cent in 2000. Current account balances worsened by 4.5 per cent in 1998, slowing down to 2 per cent in 1999 and are forecast to be 2.4 per cent in 2000.[1] The value of GDP attributable to the private sector in Central Asian republics is low, even compared to other countries in transition to market-based economies. It is, for example, 30 per cent in Tajikistan as compared to 60 per cent in Mongolia.

8. Many countries in Central Asia, because of widening current account deficits, budgetary imbalances and overall debt burden, have since 1997 found it increasingly more difficult to raise funds in international markets. Because of this and given the magnitude of their development needs and their limited capacity to generate an investable surplus, the volume, timeliness and terms of external financial resources will be crucial and should correspond to their immediate short-term and long-term development needs. Foreign assistance should serve to promote domestic growth and long-term economic development and transformation, so that eventually they could reduce their dependence on aid.

B. Main alternative transit transport corridors for Central Asia

9. For trade, Central Asia has a growing number of transit transport options: (a) the traditional rail and road connections through the Russian Federation; (b) the trans-Caspian ferry routes by rail and road; (c) rail and road links through the Islamic Republic of Iran; (d) to the East, by rail and road, through China; and (e) to

the south, by road, through China to Pakistan and India. The impact of these routes in opening up Central Asia for trade has been significant. Improving their efficiency by removing physical infrastructure bottlenecks and non-physical barriers in order to minimize the cost of transport will enable them to make an even greater contribution to trade expansion.

III. Physical infrastructure bottlenecks: solving short-term problems and adjusting to longer-term trends

A. Parameters for long-term development

10. By virtue of their membership in regional organizations, such as ESCAP and ECE, the Central Asian countries have committed themselves to participate in common schemes and programmes, for example, the Asian Land Transport Infrastructure Programme (ALTID), and have also agreed to accede to basic international agreements and conventions which stipulate the rules and procedures that promote transit facilitations and lay down minimum technical requirements for the construction and maintenance of infrastructure and transit transport facilitation. If Central Asia were to become a land bridge between Europe and Asia, it has no choice but to adapt to common principles and standards, but the cost of adhering to European norms and standards for construction and maintenance of infrastructure and transport facilitation, as illustrated in paragraphs 29 and 30 below, is high, and Central Asia will certainly need and deserve financial and technical support from their trading partners and multilateral and financial institutions.

B. Current developments to improve physical infrastructure

1. Prospective pipeline routes

11. Major developments in Central Asia since the 1998 report of the Secretary-General have been in the area of pipeline development. In June 2000, Azerbaijan, Georgia and Turkey reached agreement on the legal framework for a proposed Baku-Tiblisi-Ceyhan pipeline. In July 2000, the state pipeline company of Turkey, Botas, invited tenders for preliminary engineering work on the Turkish section of the pipeline. This section, which represents over 50 per cent of the total distance of some 1,700 kilometres, is expected to cost around US$ 2.5 billion when completed. Capacity is about 1 million barrels a day. Early commencement of construction is now, however, in doubt, owing to the recent increase in oil flows from Kazakhstan via the Russian Federation.

12. It has been reported that the Baku-Supsa oil pipeline from Azerbaijan to the Black Sea via Georgia had deteriorated to such an extent that the rehabilitation project had to be upgraded into a complete rebuilding operation. The refurbished pipeline will have a capacity of up to 20 million tons a year.

13. In Kazakhstan, the International Caspian Pipeline Consortium established in 1993 to build a US$ 2.2 billion oil pipeline from the Tenghiz field to Novorossiisk in Russia on the Black Sea, is close to agreement with all interests along the route. It should be built during the forthcoming 12 to 18 months and, with an initial capacity of 28.2 million barrels per day rising to 67 million barrels per day, will increase the

oil exports of Kazakhstan by an initial 80 per cent. The possibility of a pipeline link to Azerbaijan under the Caspian is still under discussion. There are also plans for a 3,000-kilometre pipeline from Aktobe in Kazakhstan to the Karami oil field in China, which could have a capacity of 20 million tons per year, and also for a pipeline from Kazakhstan to the Persian Gulf via Turkmenistan and the Islamic Republic of Iran. The completion of oil trans-shipment port terminals at Iktan in Baku will increase Kasakh oil export capacity to 10 million tons a year.

14. In Turkmenistan, agreement was reached in December 1997 for the construction of a 140-kilometre gas export pipeline to Iran. Turkmenistan may also build a gas pipeline under the Caspian Sea to Erzurum in Turkey via the Caucasus at a cost estimated at US$ 2 to 4 billion. A consortium of interests reached preliminary agreement in June 1998, but commencement of construction may now be a more distant prospect following a decision by Turkmenistan in May 2000 to double its gas deliveries to the Russian Federation. The proposed trans-Afghan pipeline from Turkmenistan to Pakistan has been put on indefinite hold awaiting a more stable transit environment.

2. Rehabilitation and improvement of transport infrastructure

15. With the main transit transport corridors virtually in place, the second phase of improving the transport infrastructure in Central Asia has mainly focused on rehabilitation, maintenance and upgrading. With regard to railway infrastructure, priority attention is being directed to improvement of bogey change stations, upgrading and reconstruction of tracks and bridges, and improving telecommunications and electrification. Road maintenance and rehabilitation have been given greater priority over new roads. Some of the main projects under way are summarized in table 1 below.

Table 1
Infrastructure improvement projects agreed to during the period 1998-2000, mostly due for completion during the period 2000-2004

State	*Infrastructure project*	*Value*	*Organization*
Kazakhstan	Almaty-Gulshad road reconstruction	US$ 9.57 million	IDB[a]
	Rail-track maintenance/renewal	Euro 64.8 million	EBRD[b]
	Road transport restructuring	US$ 100 million	World Bank
Kyrgyzstan	Almaty-Bishkek road rehabilitation	US$ 5 million	ADB[c]
	Bishkek-Osh second road rehabilition	US$ 50 million	ADB
Tajikistan	Road rehabilitation Dushanbe-Kulyab	US$ 20 million	ADB
Turkmenistan	Ashgabat-Mary highway rehabilitation	US$ 50 million	EBRD
	Turkmenbashi port rehabilitation	US$ 30 million	EBRD
Uzbekistan	Railways modernization	US$ 70 million	ADB/EBRD
	Railways rehabilitation Chengeldy-Tashkent-Samarkand	US$ 70 million	ADB
	Road rehabilitation Bukhara-Turkmenistan border	US$ 50 million	ADB

State	*Infrastructure project*	*Value*	*Organization*
Regional projects			
Intermodal cotton exports			TRACECA[d]
Electric freight locomotives		Euro 39.8 million	EBRD
Container services Baku-Turkmenbashi		Euro 2.5 million	TRACECA
Rail ferry facilities, Georgian Black Sea		Euro 3.4 million	TRACECA
Cargo and container handling equipment		Euro 5.825 million	TRACECA

Source: Compiled by the secretariat of UNCTAD from information obtained from the organizations concerned.

[a] Islamic Development Bank.

[b] European Bank for Reconstruction and Development.

[c] Asian Development Bank.

[d] Transport Corridor: Europe-Caucasus-Asia programme of the European Union.

IV. Measures designed to overcome non-physical barriers to the available transit transport corridors

A. Creating a conducive legal environment for transit operations

16. Since attaining their independence in 1991, the Central Asian countries have taken measures to join the community of nations by becoming members of the United Nations and related agencies and affiliating themselves to a number of organizations in their region. As part of their strategy to be fully integrated into the community of nations, they have redoubled effort to conclude regional and bilateral agreements with their neighbouring countries and to accede to international conventions.

1. Accession to international conventions

17. The Central Asian countries, as illustrated in table 2 below, have done a commendable job in complying with ESCAP resolution 48/11 of 23 April 1992,[3] which recommends that its members should make efforts to accede to: (a) the Convention on Road Traffic, 1968; (b) the Convention on Road Signs and Signals, 1968; (c) international customs transit regimes, such as those stipulated in the Convention on the International Transport of Goods under Cover of TIR Carnets (TIR Convention), 1975; (d) the Customs Convention on the Temporary Importation of Commercial Road Vehicles, 1956; (e) the Customs Convention on Containers, 1972; (f) the International Convention on the Harmonization of Frontier Control of Goods, 1982; and (g) the Convention on the Contract for the International Carriage of Goods by Road, 1956.

Table 2
Accession to international conventions by the Central Asian countries and their transit neighbours, as at February 2000

State	*CMR*[a]	*TIR*[b]	*Containers*	*Harmonization frontiers*	*Road traffic*	*Road signs*	*ADR*[c]	*ATP*[d]	*AETR*[e]	*AGR*[f]	*TEMP*[g]
Armenia		X		X							
Azerbaijan	X								X	X	
China			X								
Georgia	X	X	X	X	X			X			
Iran, Islamic Republic of	X	X			X	X					
Kazakhstan	X	X			X	X			X	X	
Kyrgyzstan	X	X		X		X					X
Mongolia					X						
Russian Federation	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	
Tajikistan	X	X			X	X					
Turkey	X	X	X							X	
Turkmenistan	X				X	X			X		
Uzbekistan	X	X	X	X	X	X		X	X		X

Source: Economic Commission for Europe.

[a] Convention on the Contract for the International Carriage of Goods by Road, 1956.

[b] Customs Convention on the International Transport of Goods under Cover of TIR Carnets (TIR Convention), 1975.

[c] European Agreement concerning the International Carriage of Dangerous Goods by Road, 1957.

[d] Agreement on the International Carriage of Perishable Foodstuffs and on the Special Equipment to be used for Such Carriage, 1970.

[e] European Agreement concerning the Work of Crews of Vehicles engaged in International Road Transport, 1970.

[f] European Agreement on Main International Traffic Arteries, 1975.

[g] Customs Convention on the Temporary Importation of Commercial Road Vehicles, 1956.

18. All of the international conventions stipulated by ESCAP in its resolution 48/11 are important. It is not possible, however, to describe all of them in extenso in the present report. Instead, the TIR Convention is covered in more detail, because of its worldwide importance in transit facilitation.

19. The TIR Convention of 1975, which replaced an earlier version adopted in 1973, had initially been restricted to the carriage of goods by road, but the current version covers other modes of transport (air, rail and multimodal transport), provided that part of the journey is by road. The TIR Convention enables a vehicle or container covered by a specific customs document, the TIR carnet, to journey from its point of departure to its point of destination without undergoing any customs examination when crossing intermediate frontiers.

20. TIR carnets are issued by the secretariat of the International Road Transport Union (IRU) at Geneva and distributed to national associations representing IRU in the countries which are contracting parties to the Convention. To obtain a TIR carnet, the carrier must belong to a national association which can furnish

professional and economic guarantees and which is authorized to issue carnets. Moreover, the vehicles and containers used must fulfil technical and other conditions laid down in the Convention.

21. Each association stands guarantor, under an agreement with the customs authorities, for the duties and taxes payable on goods carried under cover of the TIR carnets issued by it, or by any other member of the international chain of guaranteeing associations. Similarly, the national guaranteeing association must sign an undertaking with IRU, regulating the reciprocal rights and liabilities implicit in the operation of the TIR system.

22. To guarantee fully the payment amounts claimed on account of irregularities in a TIR operation, IRU has negotiated a surety bond with a pool of international insurance companies.

23. The essential pillars of the TIR transit system are that: (a) goods should travel in secure vehicles or containers; (b) duties and taxes at risk should be covered by an internationally valid guarantee throughout the journey; (c) the goods should be accompanied by an internationally accepted carnet taken into use in the country of departure and accepted in the countries of transit and destination; and (d) customs control measures taken in the country of departure should be accepted by the countries of transit and destination.

24. The TIR system, as illustrated in table 3, below is growing in strength in Central Asia, but the weak financial base of many local transport operators has been a major obstacle to their participation in the system, leaving the scene to the domination of foreign carriers. To remedy this unsatisfactory situation, substantially greater technical assistance to local banking and insurance sectors would be needed, so as to enable them to devise reliable and cost effective schemes for offering financial guarantees to the local transport operators. Without such guarantees, it will be difficult or impossible for road carriers to comply with the requirements of the TIR system, which, inter alia, demand the purchase of a special type of vehicle without which they would not be allowed to operate in Western markets.

Table 3
Number of TIR carnets issued for Central Asian external trade

State	*1994*	*1995*	*1996*	*1997*	*1998*	*1999*
Azerbaijan	0	0	0	300	600	650
Georgia	0	0	300	500	300	900
Kazakhstan	0	0	2 000	suspended	3 500	9 000
Russian Federation	121 000	110 000	145 500	191 500	218 000	174 350
Turkey	189 500	221 000	263 000	307 000	307 000	279 000
Uzbekistan	0	0	600	250	450	600

Source: Economic Commission for Europe and International Road Transport Union.

2. Transit transport services

25. The advantages of the TIR system can be seriously diminished if vehicles registered in other countries are not allowed to pass through national frontiers. More work in Central Asia is required to conclude regional or bilateral agreements in order to facilitate door-to-door road transport services.

3. Road transit charges

26. Road transit charges have also come under criticism from foreign carriers. They point out that not only were the level of fees high, charges were being raised by various authorities (government, provincial authorities, local communities etc.). Such a multiplicity of transit charges could be a serious obstacle to efficient transit operations; accordingly, every effort should be made to improve the situation. It should be pointed out that transit transport would be facilitated if road transit charges could be harmonized at the subregional level, a situation that has been achieved in southern Africa. Transit charges, axle load limits, visas and similar aspects of importance to transit facilitation are issues that could be best handled under the framework of regional agreements.

4. Third party motor insurance

27. The extension of the European Green Card for motor insurance to Central Asia has been mooted, but as prospects for implementation in the near future are not bright, proposals made in regional agreements, such as the Economic Cooperation Organization (ECO) Transit Transport Framework Agreement for the establishment of subregional schemes should be implemented as an interim measure.

5. Using information technology to contribute to customs transit facilitation

28. Within the context of transit arrangements, information technology can be used to help customs authorities to control transit and improve the efficiency of transport operators, and thus benefit traders. Flows of information, which are largely encoded in paper documents, are fast being replaced by telematic techniques. New information technology can be used: (a) to computerize data-handling tasks undertaken by individual suppliers of transit services, including transport operators, freight forwarders, banks, insurance companies, warehouse operators, customs and providers of market information; and (b) to computerize the exchange of information among suppliers of transit services, for example, between port and railway authorities, or with national customs authorities. A number of information systems, including the UNCTAD Automated System for Customs Data Entry, Control and Management (ASYCUDA) have been proposed for implementation in Central Asia. Countries which have not installed customs information systems may wish to determine their choice of systems and seek technical assistance.

B. Cost implications of implementing international agreements

29. While the political will of the Central Asian countries to accede to international conventions should be welcomed, the implications, financial and other, of implementing the provisions of such conventions should not be ignored or underestimated. Adherence to the European Agreement on Main International Traffic Arteries or the European Agreement on Main International Railway Lines

would, for example, involve large-scale upgrading of physical infrastructure that would cost millions, if not billions, of dollars in investment. The installation or upgrading of signs and signals in line with the Convention on Road Signs and Signals, 1968, would be expensive, given the long distances involved in Central Asia, a territory as large as India and Pakistan combined.

30. The construction requirements for vehicles under the agreement on the international carriage of dangerous goods by road would require complete fleet renewal, as well as certification and other administrative costs. Lastly, the agreement on drivers' hours of work requires the fitting and use of tachographs so as to provide a reliable mechanical record of driving time, rest time etc. Unfortunately, tachograph instruments and drive systems have proved inherently fragile and any tampering with components for the purposes of repair requires subsequent recalibration of the instrument. The economic costs of maintaining tachographs in the difficult operating conditions in Central Asia would be high. For this reason, a temporary derogation from the fitment requirement is in effect throughout the Commonwealth of Independent States.

C. Strengthening national managerial and institutional systems

31. Apart from issues relating to financial constraints, it is important to recognize that the implementation of international conventions cannot be achieved in the absence of effective institutional and managerial support systems at both the public and private sector levels. Government responsibility is critical in three main areas: (a) ensuring that the legislative action needed to translate the various conventions and agreements into domestic law, if required, is secured; (b) that the judicial system has adequate capacity to administer the laws of the land, including those introduced through international conventions, and regional and bilateral agreements; and (c) public control agents, such as customs, border control police and the various licensing authorities, are well trained. The complexity and multilateral nature of international transport services also demand an effective private sector. The complexity and multilateral nature of transit operations require a new breed of transit transport operators vested with adequate financial and managerial capacity. Individual transport companies require support, not only from their national transporters associations, but also associated professional bodies, notably banking, insurance and freight forwarder services. Such professional bodies and associations, where established, must be strengthened since efficient international services would not be possible without them.

D. Technical assistance

32. There are many transport bottlenecks that typically cause delay in the movement of goods throughout the world. Central Asia is no exception. Central Asia and its development partners and the bilateral or multilateral frameworks have attempted to address the problems through appropriate technical assistance projects. As indicated in table 4 below, technical assistance was directed towards a broad range of issues and problems, including those related to road transport maintenance systems, preparatory work in support of the implementation of multilateral agreements, and measures designed to strengthen institutional capacity.

Table 4
Major technical assistance projects agreed to during the period 1998-2000, mostly due for completion by the end of 2001

State	*Technical assistance*	*Value*	*Organization*
Kazakhstan	Improvement road sector efficiency	US$ 750,000	ADB[a]
Kyrgyzstan	Improvement road sector efficiency	US$ 440,000	ADB
	Third road rehabilitation	US$ 600,000	ADB
Tajikistan	Institutional/policy road sector	US$ 500,000	ADB
	Road rehabilitation/sector profile	US$ 840,000	ADB
Turkmenistan			
Uzbekistan	Policy reform in the railway sector	US$ 600,000	ADB
	Railways modernization	US$ 450,000	ADB
Regional projects			
Vehicle emission action plan		US$ 900,000	ADB
Road funds/sustainable maintenance		US$ 350,000	ADB
Road transport transit facilitation		Euro 2.8 million	TRACECA[b]
Traffic forecasting		Euro 2 million	TRACECA
Implementation of multilateral agreements		Euro 1.1 million	TRACECA
Silk Road regional cooperation		US$ 1.2 million	UNDP[c]
Road maintenance systems		Euro 2.5 million	TRACECA
Intermodal services		Euro 2 million	TRACECA
Trade facilitation		US$ 1.35 million	ADB

Source: Organizations listed.
[a] Asian Development Bank.
[b] Transport Corridor: Europe-Caucasus-Asia programme of the European Union.
[c] United Nations Development Programme.

V. Towards a framework for better cooperation and coordination

A. Financial and technical cooperation

33. There has been an assumption that the more projects launched, the greater the demonstration by the world community of its determination to help ease the process of transition in Central Asia. With the hindsight of nearly 10 years of aid delivery effort and the realization that logistical, transaction and administrative costs have absorbed a large proportion of resources, estimated at between 60 and 70 per cent of project funds, the time now appears to be ripe for a re-evaluation in order to improve the way aid, in particular technical assistance, is designed and delivered.

34. Another weakness in the donor-led projects has been the realization, some time well after the projects have been completed, that the recipient countries did not in fact have appropriate institutions available for the implementation of the new

projects. A case in point has been the TIR Convention which became applicable before road transport associations, banking and insurance support institutions were established in Central Asia, with the consequence that many local transport operators, for lack of adequate financial and managerial capacity, were not able to take advantage of the TIR system.

B. Aid coordination

35. Aid coordination has also been weak. Fortunately, some of the lending institutions have now begun to cooperate more and more systematically in order to reduce duplication of effort and maximize outcomes. EBRD and ADB have, for example, signed a memorandum of understanding concerning their activities in Central Asia. ADB will take the overall lead in infrastructure projects in Kyrgyzstan and Tajikistan, while both institutions will cooperate in the development of specific infrastructure projects in Kazakhstan, Uzbekistan and Turkmenistan, in particular when co-financing is necessary. A US$ 70 million railway modernization project in Uzbekistan marked the first major application of the new strategy. In similar fashion, EBRD and the World Bank have an understanding, whereby EBRD is taking the lead on rail infrastructure projects.

C. An organic process must underpin the transition to a market-based economy

36. Recent annual reports of the multilateral development banks and an increasing number of position papers and technical assistance project reports emphasize the need for coherent institutional development strategies to be adopted and implemented by Governments in the region as a high priority. Indeed, good governance is beginning to be appreciated by the lending institutions almost as a precondition to sustainable economic growth and long-term foreign investor confidence as the realization grows that investment alone will not produce results.

37. Good governance in the context of the transport sector does not only involve competitive tendering for the construction and maintenance of equipment and infrastructure. At the heart of good governance lies effective legislation, adequately drafted and sufficiently and impartially enforced, and regulatory mechanisms to ensure fair competition. During the early years of activity by the international development agencies in transitional economies, legislation tended to be regarded as a component to be added, almost an afterthought instead of as part of an organic process. As has been eloquently put in an ADB review, for the creation of a responsive and well-established legal system that is supportive of private sector operations, a systematic approach to legal reform must be adopted. This implies a move away from a purely reactive approach to specific problems towards an approach that seeks to understand and take into account the working of the legal system as a whole. This involves shifting the focus of the law reform efforts away from normative law reform (i.e., writing up new laws, though it must still be maintained), towards strengthening the institutional capabilities of the judiciary and governmental agencies through training, including continuing legal education for existing professionals.

D. Intergovernmental institutional support arrangements

38. There is need for an institutional mechanism which is dedicated to promoting the simplification, harmonization and standardization of rules, procedures and documentation applicable along all the main transit corridors radiating from Central Asia. Transit operations will be facilitated if the rules agreed through regional or bilateral agreements to complement international convention provisions were harmonized throughout the region. Target regulations should include rules relating to axle load limits, driver licence requirements, working hours at border checkpoints, and transit charges etc.

39. The current subregional organizational arrangements in Central Asia have their mandates essentially linked to specific corridors: the European Union Europe-Caucasus-Asia TRACECA programme is modernizing the physical and regulatory framework for transit along the Trans-Caspian transport corridor; ECO focuses largely on the transit corridors that radiate from Indian ocean ports; CIS addresses the development and regulation of transit transport along the traditional corridor and routes via the Russian Federation; transit issues relating to the Eastern corridor through China are discussed separately between that country and interested Central Asian countries; and the ECE/ESCAP Special Programme for the Economies of Central Asia (SPECA) coordinates United Nations technical assistance programmes or projects within Central Asia.

40. In the circumstances, the need for an institutional arrangement vested with overall mandate is evident but, with so many subregional organizations or arrangements already established, it would be inappropriate to propose yet another institution. It is therefore incumbent upon the existing organizations to find a way to cooperate and coordinate. The Central Asian countries themselves also have an important role to play. They must not allow themselves to negotiate one day a set of rules and procedures for application in one corridor only to agree the next day to different rules and procedures in respect of another corridor. To do so will impede efficient transit transport operations, with a consequent increase in transport costs, thereby undermining their external trade efforts and competitiveness in world markets.

Notes

[1] Asian Development Bank, selected economic indicators for developing Asia, 1997-2001.

[2] International Monetary Fund, *World Economic Outlook* (Washington, D.C., May 2000).

[3] See *Official Records of the Economic and Social Council, 1992, Supplement No. 11* (E/1992/31), chap. IV.

Annex

Status of Economic Commission for Europe transport agreements and conventions as at 9 February 2000[a]

Legend

X = Rectification, accession, definite signature.
S = Signature.
* = Non-ECE member countries.
1/ = Done by the former republic of China.

Acronyms

ADR	European Agreement concerning the International Carriage of Dangerous Goods by Road
AETR	European Agreement concerning the Work of Crews of Vehicles engaged in International Road Transport
AGR	European Agreement on Main International Traffic Arteries
AGC	European Agreement on Main International Railway Lines
AGN	European Agreement on Main Inland Waterways of International Importance
AGTC	European Agreement on Important International Combined Transport Lines and Related Installations
APC	Agreement on Minimum Requirements for the Issue and Validity of Driving Permits
ATP	Agreement on the International Carriage of Perishable Foodstuffs and on the Special Equipment to be Used for such Carriage
CLN	Convention relating to the Limitation of Liability of Owners of Inland Navigation Vessels
CMR	Convention on the Contract for the International Carriage of Goods by Road
CRTD	Convention on Civil Liability for Damage caused during Carriage of Dangerous Goods by Road, Rail and Inland Navigation Vessels
CVN	Convention on the Contract for the International Carriage of Passengers and Luggage by Inland Waterways
CVR	Convention on the Contract for the International Carriage of Passengers and Luggage by Road
TIR	Customs Convention on the International Transport of Goods under Cover of TIR Carnets

[a] Prepared by the Transport Division of the Economic Commission for Europe (ECE).

	Declaration	Afghanistan *	Albania	Algeria *	Andorra	Antigua and Barbuda *	Argentina *	Armenia	Australia *	Austria	Azerbaijan	Bahamas *	Bahrain *	Bangladesh *	Barbados *	Belarus	Belgium	Benin *	Bosnia and Herzegovina
Infrastructure networks	1 Construction Traffic Arteries, 1950									X							X		X
	2 E Road Network (AGR), 1975									S	X					X	X		X
	3 E Rail Network (AGC), 1985															X	X		X
	4 E Comb. Tr. Network (AGTC), 1991									X						X	X		
	5 Protocol Inl. Nav. to AGTC, 1997									S									
	6 E Inl. Water Network (AGN), 1996									S									
Road traffic	7 Road Traffic, 1949			X			X		X	X				X			X		
	8 Road Traffic, 1968									X		X				X	X	X	X
	9 Road Signs & Signals, 1949									X									
	10 Road Signs & Signals, 1968									X			X			X	X		X
	11 Suppl. 1968 Convention Road Traffic, 1971									X						X	X		X
	12 Suppl 1968 Conv. Road Signs & Signals, 1971									X						X	X		X
	13 Weights and Dimensions, 1950																		
	14 Suppl. 1949 Conv. and Protocol, 1950									X							X		
	15 Road Markings, 1957																X		X
	16 Protocol Road Markings, 1973									X						X	X		X
	17 Driving Permits (APC), 1975																		X
Vehicles	18 Construction of Vehicles, 1958									X						X	X		X
	19 Techn. Inspect. Vehicles, 1997									S							S		
	20 Global Technical Regulations Vehicles, 1998																		
Road transport	21 Work of Crews Int. Road Transport (AETR), 1970				X					X	X					X	X		X
	22 Taxation Priv. Road Vehic., 1956							X		X							S		X
	23 Taxation Road Passenger Vehic., 1956									X									X
	24 Taxation Road Goods Vehic., 1956									X									X
	25 Contract Road Goods Transport (CMR), 1956									X						X	X		X
	26 Protocol to CMR, 1978									X							X		
	27 Contract Pass. & Lugg. Rd. Transp. (CVR), 1973																		X
	28 Protocol to CVR, 1978																		
	29 Econ. Regulat. Road Transp., 1954																S		
Inland navigation	30 Collision Inl. Nav., 1960									X							S		
	31 Registr. Inl. Nav. Vessels, 1965									X							S		
	32 Measurement Inl. Nav. Vessels, 1966																X		
	33 Liability Vessel Owners (CLN), 1973																		
	34 Protocol to CLN, 1978																		
	35 Contract Inl. Nav. Pass. & Lugg. (CVN), 1976									S									
	36 Protocol to CNV, 1978																		
Border crossing facilitation	37 Touring Facilities, 1954			X			X	X		X				X		X			X
	38 Temp. Import. Priv. Road Vehicles, 1954			X			S	X		X				X		X			X
	39 TIR Convention, 1959	X	X							X						X			
	40 TIR Convention, 1975	X	X	X				X		X	X				X	X	X		X
	41 Temp. Import Aircraft & Boats, 1956			X						X						X	X		
	42 Temp. Import. Commerc. Vehicles, 1956	X		X						X						X	X		X
	43 Cross. Front. Pass. Bagg. Rail, 1952									X						X	X		
	44 Cross. Front. Goods Rail, 1952									X						X	X		
	45 Spare Parts Europ Wagons, 1958									X						X	X		
	46 Customs Container Convention, 1956			X	X			X		X						X	X		X
	47 Customs Container Convention, 1972			X				X		X					X		X		
	48 Customs Treatment Pallets, 1960							X		X						X	X		X
	49 Harmoniz. Frontier Controls Goods, 1982						X			X					X	X	X		X
	50 Customs Pool Containers, 1994									X									
Dangerous goods & special cargoes	51 Dang. Goods by Road (ADR), 1957									X					X		X		X
	52 Protocol to ADR, 1993									X							S		
	53 Liabil. Dang. Goods (CRTD), 1989																		
	54 Perishable Foodstuffs (ATP), 1970									X							X		X

Declaration		No.	Botswana •	Brazil •	Bulgaria	Burundi	Cambodia •	Cameroon •	Canada	Central African Republic •	Chile •	China •	Congo •	Costa Rica •	Côte d'Ivoire •	Croatia	Cuba •	Cyprus	Czech Republic	Democratic Rep of the Congo•
Construction Traffic Arteries, 1950	Infrastructure networks	1			X														X	
E Road Network (AGR), 1975		2			X											X			X	
E Rail Network (AGC), 1985		3			X											X			X	
E Comb. Tr. Network (AGTC), 1991		4			X											X			X	
Protocol Inl. Nav. to AGTC, 1997		5			X														X	
E Inl. Water Network (AGN), 1996		6			X											X			X	
Road Traffic, 1949	Road traffic	7	X		X		X		X	X	X	X	X		X		X	X	X	X
Road Traffic, 1968		8		X	X					X	S	S		S	X	X	X		X	X
Road Signs & Signals, 1949		9			X		X										X		X	
Road Signs & Signals, 1968		10		S	X					X	X	S1		S	X	X	X		X	X
Suppl. 1968 Convention Road Traffic, 1971		11			X											X			X	
Suppl. 1968 Conv. Road Signs & Signals, 1971		12			X														X	
Weights and Dimensions, 1950		13																		
Suppl. 1949 Conv. and Protocol, 1950		14																		
Road Markings, 1957		15			X													X	X	
Protocol Road Markings, 1973		16			X														X	
Driving Permits (APC), 1975		17			X											X				
Construction of Vehicles, 1958	Vehicles	18			X											X			X	
Techn. Inspect. Vehicles, 1997		19																S	S	
Global Technical Regulations Vehicles, 1998		20							X											
Work of Crews Int. Road Transport (AETR), 1970	Road transport	21			X											X			X	
Taxation Priv. Road Vehic., 1956		22					X												X	
Taxation Road Passenger Vehic., 1956		23															X		X	
Taxation Road Goods Vehic., 1956		24															X		X	
Contract Road Goods Transport (CMR), 1956		25			X											X			X	
Protocol to CMR, 1978		26																		
Contract Pass. & Lugg. Rd. Transp. (CVR), 1973		27														X			X	
Protocol to CVR, 1978		28																		
Econ. Regulat. Road Transp., 1954		29																		
Collision Inl. Nav., 1960	Inland navigation	30																		
Registr. Inl. Nav. Vessels, 1965		31																		
Measurement Inl. Nav. Vessels, 1966		32			X														X	
Liability Vessel Owners (CLN), 1973		33																		
Protocol to CLN, 1978		34																		
Contract Inl. Nav. Pass. & Lugg. (CVN), 1976		35																		
Protocol to CNV, 1978		36																		
Touring Facilities, 1954	Border crossing facilitation	37			X		X		X	X	X			X		X	X	X		
Temp. Import. Priv. Road Vehicles, 1954		38			X		S		X	X	X			X		X	X	X		
TIR Convention, 1959		39			X				X									X	X	
TIR Convention, 1975		40			X				X		X					X		X	X	
Temp. Import Aircraft & Boats, 1956		41														X				
Temp. Import. Commerc. Vehicles, 1956		42			X		X									X	X	X		
Cross. Front. Pass. Bagg. Rail, 1952		43																		
Cross. Front. Goods Rail, 1952		44																		
Spare Parts Europ. Wagons, 1958		45																		
Customs Container Convention, 1956		46			X		X	X	X							X	X		X	
Customs Container Convention, 1972		47			X	X			X			X					X		X	
Customs Treatment Pallets, 1960		48			X											X	X		X	
Harmoniz. Frontier Controls Goods, 1982		49			X											X	X		X	
Customs Pool Containers, 1994		50															X			
Dang. Goods by Road (ADR), 1957	Dangerous goods & special cargoes	51			X											X			X	
Protocol to ADR, 1993		52			X														X	
Liabil. Dang. Goods (CRTD), 1989		53																		
Perishable Foodstuffs (ATP), 1970		54			X											X			X	

Declaration		Holy See •	Haiti •	Guyana •	Guatemala •	Greece	Ghana •	Germany	Georgia	France	Finland	Fiji •	Estonia	El Salvador •	Egypt •	Ecuador •	Dominican Republic •	Denmark
Infrastructure networks																		
Construction Traffic Arteries, 1950	1					X		X		X	X							X
E Road Network (AGR), 1975	2					X		X	X	X	X							X
E Rail Network (AGC), 1985	3					X		X		X								
E Comb. Tr. Network (AGTC), 1991	4					X		X	X	X	S							X
Protocol Inl. Nav. to AGTC, 1997	5					S		S		S								X
E Inl. Water Network (AGN), 1996	6					S		S		S	S							
Road traffic																		
Road Traffic, 1949	7	X	X		X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X			X	X	X	X
Road Traffic, 1968	8	S	X	X		X	S	X	X	X	X		X			S		X
Road Signs & Signals, 1949	9	X	X			X				X	X				X	X	X	X
Road Signs & Signals, 1968	10	S				X	S	X		X	X		X			S		X
Suppl. 1968 Convention Road Traffic, 1971	11					X		X		X	X							X
Suppl.1968 Conv. Road Signs & Signals, 1971	12					X		X		X	X		X					X
Weights and Dimensions, 1950	13					X				X								
Suppl. 1949 Conv. and Protocol, 1950	14	X				X				X								
Road Markings, 1957	15						X	X		X								
Protocol Road Markings, 1973	16					X		X			X							X
Driving Permits (APC), 1975	17																	
Vehicles																		
Construction of Vehicles, 1958	18					X		X		X	X		X					X
Techn. Inspect. Vehicles, 1997	19					S		S	S	S	S		X					S
Global Technical Regulations Vehicles, 1998	20									X								
Road transport																		
Work of Crews Int. Road Transport (AETR), 1970	21					X		X		X	X		X					X
Taxation Priv. Road Vehic. , 1956	22						X	X		X	X							X
Taxation Road Passenger Vehic. , 1956	23						X				X							X
Taxation Road Goods Vehic. , 1956	24						X				X							X
Contract Road Goods Transport (CMR) ,1956	25					X		X	X	X	X		X					X
Protocol to CMR, 1978	26					X		X	X	X	X		X					X
Contract Pass. & Lugg. Rd. Transp. (CVR) , 1973	27							S										
Protocol to CVR, 1978	28							S										
Econ. Regulat. Road Transp. , 1954	29					X				X								S
Inland navigation																		
Collision Inl. Nav. , 1960	30							X		X								
Registr. Inl. Nav. Vessels, 1965	31							S		X								
Measurement Inl. Nav. Vessels, 1966	32							X		X								
Liability Vessel Owners (CLN), 1973	33							S										
Protocol to CLN, 1978	34							S										
Contract Inl. Nav. Pass. & Lugg. (CVN) , 1976	35																	
Protocol to CNV, 1978	36																	
Border crossing facilitation																		
Touring Facilities, 1954	37	S	X		S	X	X	X		X	X	X		X	X	X	S	X
Temp. Import. Priv. Road Vehicles, 1954	38	S	X		S		X	X		X	X	X		X	X	X	S	X
TIR Convention, 1959	39					X		X		X	X							X
TIR Convention, 1975	40					X		X	X	X	X		X					X
Temp. Import Aircraft & Boats, 1956	41							X		X	X							X
Temp. Import. Commerc. Vehicles, 1956	42					X		X		X	X							X
Cross. Front. Pass. Bagg. Rail, 1952	43									X								
Cross. Front. Goods Rail, 1952	44									X								
Spare Parts Europ Wagons, 1958	45							X		X								X
Customs Container Convention, 1956	46					X		X		X	X							X
Customs Container Convention, 1972	47					S			X		X							
Customs Treatment Pallets, 1960	48							X		X	X							X
Harmoniz. Frontier Controls Goods, 1982	49					X		X	X	X	X		X					X
Customs Pool Containers, 1994	50																	S
Dangerous goods & special cargoes																		
Dang. Goods by Road (ADR) , 1957	51					X		X		X	X		X					X
Protocol to ADR, 1993	52					S		S		X	X		X					X
Liabil. Dang. Goods (CRTD) , 1989	53							S										
Perishable Foodstuffs (ATP) , 1970	54					X		X	X	X	X		X					X

Declaration			Honduras •	Hungary	Iceland	India •	Indonesia •	Iran, Islamic Republic of •	Iraq •	Ireland	Israel	Italy	Jamaica •	Japan •	Jordan •	Kazakhstan	Kuwait •	Kyrgyzstan	Lao People's Dem. Rep. •	Latvia
Construction Traffic Arteries, 1950	Infrastructure networks	1		X						X		X								
E Road Network (AGR), 1975		2		X								X				X				X
E Rail Network (AGC), 1985		3		X								X								
E Comb. Tr. Network (AGTC), 1991		4		X								X								
Protocol Inl. Nav. to AGTC, 1997		5		S								S								
E Inl. Water Network (AGN), 1996		6		X								S								
Road Traffic, 1949	Road traffic	7		X	X	X				X	X	X	X	X	X			X	X	
Road Traffic, 1968		8		X			S	X			X	X				X	X			X
Road Signs & Signals, 1949		9		X		S					S	X						X		
Road Signs & Signals, 1968		10		X		X	S	X	X			X				X	X			X
Suppl. 1968 Convention Road Traffic, 1971		11		X								X								
Suppl.1968 Conv. Road Signs & Signals, 1971		12		X								X								
Weights and Dimensions, 1950		13										X								
Suppl. 1949 Conv. and Protocol, 1950		14		X								X								
Road Markings, 1957		15		X								S								
Protocol Road Markings, 1973		16		X								X								
Driving Permits (APC), 1975		17																		
Construction of Vehicles, 1958	Vehicles	18		X								X		X						X
Techn. Inspect. Vehicles, 1997		19		S						S		S								
Global Technical Regulations Vehicles, 1998		20												X						
Work of Crews Int. Road Transport (AETR), 1970	Road transport	21		X						X		X				X				X
Taxation Priv. Road Vehic. , 1956		22								X										
Taxation Road Passenger Vehic. , 1956		23								X										X
Taxation Road Goods. Vehic. , 1956		24								X										X
Contract Road Goods Transport (CMR) ,1956		25		X				X		X		X				X		X		X
Protocol to CMR, 1978		26		X				X		X		X						X		X
Contract Pass. & Lugg. Rd. Transp. (CVR) , 1973		27																		X
Protocol to CVR, 1978		28																		X
Econ. Regulat. Road Transp. , 1954		29										X								
Collision Inl. Nav. , 1960	Inland navigation	30		X																
Registr. Inl. Nav. Vessels, 1965		31																		
Measurement Inl. Nav. Vessels, 1966		32		X																
Liability Vessel Owners (CLN), 1973		33																		
Protocol to CLN, 1978		34																		
Contract Inl. Nav. Pass. & Lugg. (CVN) , 1976		35																		
Protocol to CNV, 1978		36																		
Touring Facilities, 1954	Border crossing facilitation	37	S	X		X		X		X	X	X	X	X	X					
Temp. Import. Priv. Road Vehicles, 1954		38	S	X		X		X		X	X	X	X	X	X					
TIR Convention, 1959		39		X				X		X	X	X		X	X		X			
TIR Convention, 1975		40		X			X	X		X	X	X			X	X	X	X		X
Temp. Import.Aircraft & Boats, 1956		41		X								X	X							
Temp. Import. Commerc. Vehicles, 1956		42		X						X		X						X		
Cross. Front. Pass. Bagg. Rail, 1952		43										X								
Cross. Front. Goods Rail, 1952		44										X								
Spare Parts Europ Wagons, 1958		45										X								
Customs Container Convention, 1956		46		X						X	X	X	X	X						
Customs Container Convention, 1972		47		X			X													
Customs Treatment Pallets, 1960		48		X								X								
Harmoniz. Front[illegible] Controls Goods, 1982		49		X						X		X						X		
Customs F[illegible] Containers, 1994		50										X								
Dang. Goods by Road (ADR) , 1957	Dangerous goods & special cargoes	51		X								X								X
Protocol to ADR, 1993		52		X								X								X
Liabil. Dang. Goods (CRTD) , 1989		53																		
Perishable Foodstuffs (ATP) , 1970		54		X						X		X				X				

	Declaration	Lebanon *	Lesotho *	Liechtenstein	Lithuania	Luxembourg	Madagascar *	Malawi *	Malaysia *	Mali *	Malta	Mauritius *	Mexico *	Monaco	Mongolia *	Morocco *	Namibia *	Nepal *	Netherlands	New Zealand *
Infrastructure networks	Construction Traffic Arteries, 1950					X													X	
	E Road Network (AGR), 1975				X	X													X	
	E Rail Network (AGC), 1985					X														
	E Comb. Tr. Network (AGTC), 1991					X													X	
	Protocol Inl. Nav. to AGTC, 1997					S													X	
	E Inl. Water Network (AGN), 1996				S	X													X	
Road traffic	Road Traffic, 1949	X	X			X	X	X	X	X	X		S	X	X	X	X		X	X
	Road Traffic, 1968				X	X														
	Road Signs & Signals, 1949	S				X								X					X	
	Road Signs & Signals, 1968				X	X							S		X	X				
	Suppl. 1968 Convention Road Traffic, 1971					X								X						
	Suppl 1968 Conv. Road Signs & Signals, 1971				X	X														
	Weights and Dimensions, 1950					X													X	
	Suppl. 1949 Conv. and Protocol, 1950					X													X	
	Road Markings, 1957					X													S	
	Protocol Road Markings, 1973					X														
	Driving Permits (APC), 1975					X										X				
Vehicles	Construction of Vehicles, 1958					X													X	
	Techn. Inspect. Vehicles, 1997																		X	
	Global Technical Regulations Vehicles, 1998																			
Road transport	Work of Crews Int. Road Transport (AETR), 1970			X	X	X													X	
	Taxation Priv. Road Vehic. , 1956					X					X								X	
	Taxation Road Passenger Vehic. , 1956					X													X	
	Taxation Road Goods Vehic. , 1956					X										X			X	
	Contract Road Goods Transport (CMR) ,1956				X	X										X			X	
	Protocol to CMR, 1978				X	X													X	
	Contract Pass. & Lugg. Rd. Transp. (CVR) , 1973					S														
	Protocol to CVR, 1978																			
	Econ. Regulat. Road Transp. , 1954					S													S	
Inland navigation	Collision Inl. Nav. , 1960																		X	
	Registr. Inl. Nav. Vessels, 1965					X													X	
	Measurement Inl. Nav. Vessels, 1966					X													X	
	Liability Vessel Owners (CLN), 1973																			
	Protocol to CLN, 1978																			
	Contract Inl. Nav. Pass. & Lugg. (CVN) , 1976																			
	Protocol to CNV, 1978																			
Border crossing facilitation	Touring Facilities, 1954	X				X			X	X	X	X	X	S		X		X	X	X
	Temp. Import. Priv. Road Vehicles, 1954					X			X	X	X	X	X	S		X		X	X	X
	TIR Convention, 1959					X					X					X			X	
	TIR Convention, 1975	X			X	X					X					X			X	
	Temp. Import Aircraft & Boats, 1956					X					X	X							X	
	Temp. Import. Commerc. Vehicles, 1956					X													X	
	Cross. Front. Pass. Bagg. Rail, 1952					X													X	
	Cross. Front. Goods Rail, 1952					X													X	
	Spare Parts Europ Wagons, 1958					X													X	
	Customs Container Convention, 1956					X		X				X							X	
	Customs Container Convention, 1972															X				X
	Customs Treatment Pallets, 1960					X													X	
	Harmoniz. Frontier Controls Goods, 1982		X		X	X													X	
	Customs Pool Containers, 1994										X									
Dangerous goods & special cargoes	Dang. Goods by Road (ADR) , 1957			X	X	X													X	
	Protocol to ADR, 1993			X		X													X	
	Liabil. Dang. Goods (CRTD) , 1989															S				
	Perishable Foodstuffs (ATP) , 1970					X										X			X	

Declaration	Construction Traffic Arteries, 1950	E Road Network (AGR), 1975	E Rail Network (AGC), 1985	E Comb. Tr. Network (AGTC), 1991	Protocol Inl. Nav. to AGTC, 1997	E Inl. Water Network (AGN), 1996	Road Traffic, 1949	Road Traffic, 1968	Road Signs & Signals, 1949	Road Signs & Signals, 1968	Suppl. 1968 Convention Road Traffic, 1971	Suppl. 1968 Conv. Road Signs & Signals, 1971	Weights and Dimensions, 1950	Suppl. 1949 Conv. and Protocol, 1950	Road Markings, 1957	Protocol Road Markings, 1973	Driving Permits (IPC), 1975	Construction of Vehicles, 1958	Techn. Inspect. Vehicles, 1997	Global Technical Regulations Vehicles, 1998	Work of Crews Int. Road Transport (AETR), 1970	Taxation Priv. Road Vehic., 1956	Taxation Road Passenger Vehic., 1956	Taxation Road Goods Vehic., 1956	Contract Road Goods Transport (CMR), 1956	Protocol to CMR, 1978	Contract Pass. & Lugg. Rd. Transp. (CVR), 1973	Protocol to CVR, 1978	Econ. Regulat. Road Transp., 1954	Collision Inl. Nav., 1960	Registr. Inl. Nav. Vessels, 1965	Measurement Inl. Nav. Vessels, 1966	Liability Vessel Owners (CLN), 1973	Protocol to CLN, 1978	Contract Inl. Nav. Pass. & Lugg. (CVN), 1976	Protocol to CNV, 1978	Touring Facilities, 1954	Temp. Import Priv. Road Vehicles, 1954	TIR Convention, 1949	TIR Convention, 1975	Temp. Import Aircraft & Boats, 1956	Temp. Import Commerc. Vehicles, 1956	Cross. Front. Pass. Bagg. Rail, 1952	Cross. Front. Goods Rail, 1952	Spare Parts Europ. Wagons, 1958	Customs Container Convention, 1956	Customs Container Convention, 1972	Customs Treatment Pallets, 1960	Harmoniz. Frontier Controls Goods, 1982	Customs Pool Containers, 1994	Dang. Goods by Road (ADR), 1957	Protocol to ADR, 1993	Liabil. Dang. Goods (CRTD), 1989	Perishable Foodstuffs (ATP), 1970
	Infrastructure networks						Road traffic											Vehicles			Road transport									Inland navigation						Border crossing facilitation																Dangerous goods & special cargoes			
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33	34	35	36	37	38	39	40	41	42	43	44	45	46	47	48	49	50	51	52	53	54
Niger •							X	X	X																																																
Nigeria •																																					X	X																		
Norway	X	X		X			X	X	S	X								X			X	X	X	X	X	X			X								X	X	X	X		X	X	X		X		X	X		X	X		X
Pakistan •								X		X																																														
Panama •																																					S	S																		
Papua New Guinea •							X																																																	
Paraguay •							X																																																	
Peru •							X																														X	X																		
Philippines •							X	X		X																											X	X																		
Poland	X	X	X	S			X	X	X	X	X	X		X		X		X			X	X	X	X	X					X							X	X	X	X		X				X	X	X	X		X	X		X
Portugal	X	X	S	X	S		X	S	X	S					X			X	S		X				X	X											X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X		X		X	X		X	X		X
Republic of Korea •							X	S		S																														X								X								
Republic of Moldova			X			X		X													X	X			X							X								X												X			
Romania	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X			X			X	X		X	X	X		X	X				X		X					X	X	X	X		X				X	X	X			X	X		X
Russian Federation		X	X	X		S	X	X	X	X	X	X				X		X	X		X				X					X		X	X		X		X	X	X	X							X		X			X	X		X
Rwanda •							X		X																												X	X																		
San Marino							X	X	X	X																																														
Senegal •							X	X	X	X																											X	X																		

Declaration		Trinidad and Tobago •	Tonga •	Togo •	The FYR of Macedonia	Thailand •	Tajikistan	Syrian Arab Republic •	Switzerland	Sweden	Sri Lanka •	Spain	South Africa •	Solomon Islands •	Slovenia	Slovakia	Singapore [1]	Sierra Leone •	Seychelles •
Construction Traffic Arteries, 1950	1									X		X			X	X			
E Road Network (AGR), 1975	2				X				X	X					X	X			
E Rail Network (AGC), 1985	3				X										X	X			
E Comb. Tr. Network (AGTC), 1991	4								X						X	X			
Protocol Inl. Nav. to AGTC, 1997	5								X							S			
E Inl. Water Network (AGN), 1996	6								X							X			
Road Traffic, 1949	7	X		Y		X		Y	S	X	Y	Y	X			Y	X	X	
Road Traffic, 1968	8				X	S	Y		X	X		S	X		X	Y			Y
Road Signs & Signals, 1949	9					X			S	X		Y				Y			
Road Signs & Signals, 1968	10				X	S	X		X	X		S				X			X
Suppl. 1968 Convention Road Traffic, 1971	11				X				X	X					X	X			
Suppl.1968 Conv. Road Signs & Signals, 1971	12				X				X	X						X			
Weights and Dimensions, 1950	13																		
Suppl. 1949 Conv. and Protocol, 1950	14											X							
Road Markings, 1957	15								S			X				X			
Protocol Road Markings, 1973	16				X				X	X						X			
Driving Permits (APC), 1975	17																		
Construction of Vehicles, 1958	18				X				X	X		X			X	X			
Techn. Inspect. Vehicles, 1997	19								S	S		S							
Global Technical Regulations Vehicles, 1998	20																		
Work of Crews Int. Road Transport (AETR), 1970	21				X				S	X		X			X	X			
Taxation Priv. Road Vehic., 1956	22									X						X			
Taxation Road Passenger Vehic., 1956	23									X						X			
Taxation Road Goods Vehic., 1956	24									X						X			
Contract Road Goods Transport (CMR), 1956	25				X		X		X	X		X			X	X			
Protocol to CMR, 1978	26				X				X	X		X							
Contract Pass. & Lugg. Rd. Transp. (CVR), 1973	27															X			
Protocol to CVR, 1978	28																		
Econ. Regulat. Road Transp., 1954	29								S	S									
Collision Inl. Nav., 1960	30								X										
Registr. Inl. Nav. Vessels, 1965	31								X										
Measurement Inl. Nav. Vessels, 1966	32								X							X			
Liability Vessel Owners (CLN), 1973	33								S										
Protocol to CLN, 1978	34																		
Contract Inl. Nav. Pass. & Lugg. (CVN), 1976	35																		
Protocol to CNV, 1978	36																		
Touring Facilities, 1954	37	X	X					X	X	X	X	X		X	X		X	X	
Temp. Import. Priv. Road Vehicles, 1954	38	X	X		X			X	X	X	X	X		X	X		X	X	
TIR Convention, 1959	39								X	X		X				X			
TIR Convention, 1975	40				X		X	X	X	X		X			X	X			
Temp. Import Aircraft & Boats, 1956	41	X							X	X		X		X	X			X	
Temp. Import. Commerc. Vehicles, 1956	42				X				X	X		X			X		X	X	
Cross. Front. Pass. Bagg. Rail, 1952	43								X	S									
Cross. Front. Goods Rail, 1952	44								X	S		X							
Spare Parts Europ Wagons, 1958	45								X										
Customs Container Convention, 1956	46	X							X	X		X		X	X	X		X	
Customs Container Convention, 1972	47	X							X			X				X			
Customs Treatment Pallets, 1960	48								X	X		X			X	X			
Harmoniz. Frontier Controls Goods, 1982	49				X				X	X		X	X		X	X			
Customs Pool Containers, 1994	50								S	X						X			
Dang. Goods by Road (ADR), 1957	51				X				X	X		X			X	X			
Protocol to ADR, 1993	52								X	X		X			X	X			
Liabil. Dang. Goods (CRTD), 1989	53																		
Perishable Foodstuffs (ATP), 1970	54				X				S	X		X			X	X			

Infrastructure networks	1–6
Road traffic	7–17
Vehicles	18–20
Road transport	21–29
Inland navigation	30–36
Border crossing facilitation	37–50
Dangerous goods & special cargoes	51–54

Declaration	Construction Traffic Arteries, 1950	E Road Network (AGR), 1975	E Rail Network (AGC), 1985	E Comb. Tr. Network (AGTC), 1991	Protocol Inl. Nav. to AGTC, 1997	E Inl. Water Network (AGN), 1996	Road Traffic, 1949	Road Traffic, 1968	Road Signs & Signals, 1949	Road Signs & Signals, 1968	Suppl. 1968 Convention Road Traffic, 1971	Suppl 1968 Conv. Road Signs & Signals, 1971	Weights and Dimensions, 1950	Suppl. 1949 Conv. and Protocol, 1950	Road Markings, 1957	Protocol Road Markings, 1973	Driving Permits (APC), 1975	Construction of Vehicles, 1958	Techn. Inspect. Vehicles, 1997	Global Technical Regulations Vehicles, 1998	Work of Crews Int. Road Transport (AETR), 1970	Taxation Priv. Road Vehic., 1956	Taxation Road Passenger Vehic., 1956	Taxation Road Goods Vehic., 1956	Contract Road Goods Transport (CMR), 1956	Protocol to CMR, 1978	Contract Pass. & Lugg. Rd. Transp (CVR), 1973	Protocol to CVR, 1978	Econ. Regulat. Road Transp., 1954	Collision Inl. Nav., 1960	Registr. Inl. Nav. Vessels, 1965	Measurement Inl. Nav. Vessels, 1966	Liability Vessel Owners (CLN), 1973	Protocol to CLN, 1978	Contract Inl. Nav. Pass. & Lugg. (CVN), 1976	Protocol to CNV, 1978	Touring Facilities, 1954	Temp. Import Priv. Road Vehicles, 1954	TIR Convention, 1959	TIR Convention, 1975	Temp. Import Aircraft & Boats, 1956	Temp. Import. Commerc. Vehicles, 1956	Cross. Front. Pass. Bagg. Rail, 1952	Cross. Front. Goods Rail, 1952	Spare Parts Europ. Wagons, 1958	Customs Container Convention, 1956	Customs Container Convention, 1972	Customs Treatment Pallets, 1960	Harmoniz. Frontier Controls Goods, 1982	Customs Pool Containers, 1994	Dang. Goods by Road (ADR), 1957	Protocol to ADR, 1993	Liabil. Dang. Goods (CRTD), 1989	Perishable Foodstuffs (ATP), 1970
	Infrastructure networks						Road traffic											Vehicles			Road transport									Inland navigation							Border crossing facilitation															Dangerous goods & special cargoes			
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33	34	35	36	37	38	39	40	41	42	43	44	45	46	47	48	49	50	51	52	53	54
Tunisia *							X		X																X	X											X	X		X																
Turkey	X	X	X	X			X								X			X							X	X											X	X	X	X						X	X								
Turkmenistan								X		X											X				X	X														X																
Uganda *							X		X																												X	X												S					
Ukraine		X	X					X		X	X	X				X			S																					X							X								
United Kingdom	X	S					X	S	X	S	S	S		X	S			X	S	X	X	X	X	X	X	X			S								X	X	X	X	X	X				X		X	X	S	X	X		X
United Rep. of Tanzania *																																					X	X																	
United States							X													X																	X	X	X	X						X	X								X
Uruguay *								X																													X	S		X															
Uzbekistan								X		X											X			X	X	X														X		X					X		X	X				X
Venezuela *			X				X	S		S																																													
Viet Nam *																																																							
Yugoslavia	X	X	X				X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X			X	X	X	X	X		X		S	X	X	X					X	X	X	X	X	X				X		X	X		X			X
Zaire *																																																							
Zimbabwe *							X	X																																															
European Community *																		X		S																		X		X		X							X	X				

United Nations A/55/321

General Assembly

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Fifty-fifth session
Item 125 of the provisional agenda*
Human resources management

Consultants and individual contractors

Report of the Secretary-General**

Summary

The present report is submitted pursuant to General Assembly resolution 53/221 of 7 April 1999, in which the Secretary-General was requested to report on consultants hired by the United Nations during the preceding year, with an indication of their functions. The report covers the year 1999.

* A/55/150 and Corr.1 and 2.

** Owing to delays in collection of essential data gathered from offices away from Headquarters in the absence of the worldwide implementation of Integrated Management Information System (IMIS) Release III and the need to validate the aggregated data, the preparation of the present report was delayed.

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1. The General Assembly, in section VIII, paragraph 4, of its resolution 53/221 of 7 April 1999, requested the Secretary-General to submit an annual report to the Assembly on consultants hired by the United Nations during the preceding year, with an indication of their functions.

2. The present report, which covers consultants and individual contractors hired by the United Nations in 1999, expands on the format of previous reports, in accordance with requests made by the General Assembly (resolution 51/226, sect. VI, para. 7) and by the Advisory Committee on Administrative and Budgetary Questions (A/51/533, para. 44, and A/53/691, sect. III, para. 15).

3. While data on consultants and individual contractors from the database of the Integrated Management Information System (IMIS) are available for Headquarters, it has not been possible to present information on the type and nature of contracts of consultants and individual contractors that is comparable on a worldwide basis because such data would not be available until IMIS (Release III) was fully deployed in 2001 at all duty stations. This will assist the process of global compilation and management of consultant data in the future. The current Paradox database maintained by the Office of Human Resources Management of the United Nations Secretariat uses the available IMIS data which it combines with data obtained directly from overseas duty stations. It is used for reporting and monitoring purposes and has been expanded to allow for the worldwide exchange of information on the use of consultants by occupation.

4. This report records all engagements with a starting date in 1999; the duration of contracts and the fees paid to consultants and individual contractors are presented for the entire contractual period, even in those cases where the work involved extended beyond 1999. In the same manner, contracts that had begun before 1999 are not included, even if they continued into that year.

5. The statistical tables presented in the annex to this report provide an overview of the use of consultants and individual contractors in 1999. Table 1 therein summarizes the number of persons engaged and the number of contracts, by type, during the year. It indicates the number of women engaged, as well as work performed by former staff; it shows the educational levels and performance evaluations for consultants and individual contractors. In 1999, a total of 2,382 persons were engaged as consultants. Of that number, 28 per cent (669 persons) were women, 55 were retirees, 342 were non-retired former staff aged 60 years or over and 45 were non-retired former staff under age 60. A total of 3,220 separate contracts were issued for consultants during the year. In 1999, there were 886 persons engaged as individual contractors for 1,643 contracts. Of that total, nearly half were women, 29 were retirees, 43 were non-retired former staff members aged 60 years or over and 20 were non-retired former staff under age 60. The number of persons engaged in 1999, either as consultants or as individual contractors, was 3,268. Activities by consultants during the year totalled 5,589 person-months (70 days work per consultant on average) and those by individual contractors totalled just over 2,487 person-months (84 days work per contractor on average).

6. A comparison with data of the 1998 report reveals a general reduction, in numbers both of consultants (393 or 14 per cent fewer in 1999) and of individual contractors (36 less or 4 per cent fewer in 1999). The number of days worked by consultants in 1999 as compared with 1998 had decreased (by 13 per cent) as had the working days by individual contractors (11 per cent decrease). The average duration of a contract in 1999 had remained unchanged for consultants and decreased by 7 days for individual contractors. (Not all days in a contract period need be workdays.)

7. In 1999, fees for contracts with consultants totalled $23.9 million; fees for individual contractors totalled $5 million. Total fees for both consultants and individual contractors had decreased since 1998, by $1.2 million (just under 5 per cent) for consultants and by $1.4 million (22 per cent) for individual contractors. In 1999, the average daily cost was $142 for a consultant and $68 for an individual contractor. This was $12 more for a consultant and $11 less for an individual contractor than in 1998.

8. Table 2 of the annex summarizes the number of persons engaged, the number of contracts awarded, the total number of days worked and total fees, by nationality and contract type, for 1999. Consultants were engaged from 146 different countries (12 countries less than in 1998); 5 countries accounted for more than a third (35 per cent) of all consultants

engaged (Canada, Chile, France, the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland and the United States of America). For individual contractors, engagements were from 84 different countries: in that category, 4 countries accounted for 36 per cent of all engagements (Argentina, Chile, the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland and the United States of America). In terms of fees for consultants, nationals from five countries (Canada, Chile, France, the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland and the United States of America) accounted for 43 per cent of the total expenses. For individual contractors, engagements from five countries (Argentina, Chile, France, the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland and the United States of America) accounted for 43 per cent of fees.

9. Table 3 shows a breakdown of the purpose of engagement of consultants and individual contractors. With consultants, the main purposes of engagement, worldwide, were programme implementation, special analytical studies, administrative services, advisory services, drafting of manuscripts and lectures for training courses. For individual contractors, the bulk of engagements went to administrative services and programme implementation.

10. Table 4 shows the engagement of consultants and individual contractors in terms of the occupational groups that are codified in the Common Classification of Occupational Groups (CCOG) at the job family level. The largest occupational group (20 per cent) comprises economists, who are brought in mainly as consultants. The other occupational groups that are strongly represented among consultants include administrative specialists, social scientists and writers/translators/interpreters. For individual contractors, the largest occupational groups represented are writers, translators, interpreters and education and administration-related specialists.

11. Table 5 summarizes the duration of contracts for consultants and individual contractors that began in 1999. The bulk of the contracts were for less than one month (40 per cent of the consultants and 41 per cent of the individual contractors). The duration of another 34 per cent of consultant contracts and of another 35 per cent of individual contractor contracts lasted between one and three months, while 26 per cent of consultants and 24 per cent of individual contractors had a contract that continued beyond three months. Table 6 summarizes the time actually worked for contracts that commenced in 1999. Just over half of all engagements (consultants and contractors) were for less than one month, 32 per cent of consultant contracts and 31 per cent of individual contractor contracts were between one and three months and 17 per cent of contracts (consultants and contractors) extended beyond three months.

12. Table 7 of the annex sets out the use of consultants and individual contractors by department, gender, level of education, duration of contract and evaluation of performance. The departments and offices that made the most use of consultants and individual contractors in 1999 were the Department of Economic and Social Affairs of the United Nations Secretariat (DESA), the Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean (ECLAC), the Economic Commission for Asia and the Pacific (ESCAP), the United Nations Conference on Trade and Development (UNCTAD), the United Nations Office at Nairobi (UNON), the Economic and Social Commission for Western Asia (ESCWA), the International Tribunal for the Prosecution of Persons Responsible for Serious Violations of International Humanitarian Law Committed in the Territory of the Former Yugoslavia since 1991 and the United Nations Office at Geneva (UNOG). Seven of these eight entities were more dominant with regard to consultants alone, where they accounted for more than three quarters of all persons engaged. The difference noticed in 1998 in terms of gender between the use of consultants and that of individual contractors persisted in 1999. Among consultants, women represented 23 per cent of persons engaged (compared with 25 per cent in 1998), whereas among individual contractors, they represented almost 50 per cent.

13. In terms of the educational level of consultants and individual contractors, the data show that a third of the persons held a second university degree, a quarter held a first university degree and there was an even distribution between persons with an advanced university degree and those with no university degree. The majority of evaluations were either good or excellent, with less than 2 per cent reflecting only an acceptable or unsatisfactory performance.

14. Table 8 shows fees paid to consultants and individual contractors by source of funding in 1999. Data on expenditures are derived from IMIS for Headquarters departments and offices and from individual updates submitted by offices away from

Headquarters to the Office of Human Resources Management Paradox database. In 1999, a total of $28.9 million was paid in fees to consultants and individual contractors from all sources of funds: this was $2.6 million less than in 1998 (an overall decrease by just over 8 per cent). Consultants were paid $23.8 million (23 per cent from the regular budget and 67 per cent from extrabudgetary sources) and individual contractors were paid $5 million (54 per cent from the regular budget and 46 per cent from extrabudgetary sources). Fees paid to consultants engaged by the Department of Economic and Social Affairs and UNCTAD, mainly under technical cooperation projects, accounted for just over 31 per cent of the total expenditure. The corresponding figure for the regional commissions — the Economic Commission for Africa (ECA), the Economic Commission for Europe (ECE), ECLAC, ESCAP and ESCWA — was 21 per cent. ECLAC, the United Nations Office at Nairobi, the International Tribunal for the Prosecution of Persons Responsible for Serious Violations of International Humanitarian Law Committed in the Territory of the Former Yugoslavia since 1991, the International Criminal Tribunal for the Prosecution of Persons Responsible for Genocide and Other Serious Violations of International Humanitarian Law Committed in the Territory of Rwanda and Rwandan Citizens Responsible for Genocide and Other Such Violations Committed in the Territory of Neighbouring States between 1 January and 31 December 1994, and the Department of Public Information of the United Nations Secretariat accounted for two thirds of the total fees paid to individual contractors in 1999.

15. Table 9 presents aggregate data for each duty station on institutional contractors engaged in 1999. Institutional or corporate contractors are institutions that provide goods or services to the United Nations on a contractual basis (see ST/AI/327). The total expenditure was $25 million in 1999. The $4.5 million increase (18 per cent compared with 1998) was mainly the consequence of an increased use of institutional contractors by the tribunals (for the Former Yugoslavia and Rwanda), by the United Nations Centre for Human Settlements (Habitat) and the United Nations Environment Programme (UNEP) in Nairobi and by the United Nations Office at Geneva. The use of institutional contractors has decreased at Headquarters (New York) (NY(HQ)) and in ECA.

Annex

Use of consultants and individual contractors: statistical data for 1999

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List of abbreviations

The following abbreviations have been used in the tables:

CCOG	Common Classification of Occupational Groups
DDA	Department for Disarmament Affairs
DESA	Department of Economic and Social Affairs
DGAACS	Department of General Assembly Affairs and Conference Services
DM	Department of Management
DPA	Department of Political Affairs
DPI	Department of Public Information
DPKO	Department of Peacekeeping Operations
DPKO/FALD	DPKO/Field Administration and Logistics Division
ECA	Economic Commission for Africa
ECE	Economic Commission for Europe
ECLAC	Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean
EOSG	Executive Office of the Secretary-General
ESCAP	Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific
ESCWA	Economic and Social Commission for Western Asia
ICSC	Secretariat of the International Civil Service Commission
ITFY	International Tribunal for the Prosecution of Persons Responsible for Serious Violations of International Humanitarian Law Committed in the Territory of the Former Yugoslavia since 1991
ICTR	International Criminal Tribunal for the Prosecution of Persons Responsible for Genocide and Other Serious Violations of International Humanitarian Law Committed in the Territory of Rwanda and Rwandan Citizens Responsible for Genocide and Other Such Violations Committed in the Territory of Neighbouring States between 1 January and 31 December 1994
OCHA	Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs
ODCCP	United Nations Office for Drug Control and Crime Prevention
OHCHR	Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights
OIOS	Office of Internal Oversight Services
OLA	Office of Legal Affairs
UNCHS	United Nations Centre for Human Settlements (Habitat)

UNCTAD	United Nations Conference on Trade and Development
UNEP	United Nations Environment Programme
UNFIP	United Nations Fund for International Partnerships
UNOG	United Nations Office at Geneva
UNOIP	Office of the Iraq Programme
UNON	United Nations Office at Nairobi
UNOV	United Nations Office at Vienna

Table 1. Summary data on contracts with consultants and individual contractors, 1999

	NUMBER OF PERSONS	% OF TOTAL / SUBTOTAL	NUMBER OF CONTRACTS	% OF TOTAL / SUBTOTAL	DAYS WORKED	FEES ($000)
Contracts with consultants *SUBTOTAL*	**2 382**	72.9%	**3 220**	66.2%	**167 664**	**23 873**
of whom						
Women	669	28.1%	999	31.0%	50 543	6 704
Former staff						
Retirees	55	2.7%	83	2.6%		
Non-retired former staff aged 60 years or over	342	10.5%	414	12.9%		
Non-retired former staff under age 60	45	2.3%	77	2.5%		
Contracts with individual contractors *SUBTOTAL*	**886**	27.1%	**1 643**	33.8%	74 597	**5 038**
of whom						
Women	435	49.1%	817	49.7%	36 216	2 253
Former staff						
Retirees	29	3.3%	66	4.0%		
Non-retired former staff aged 60 years or over	43	4.9%	64	3.9%		
Non-retired former staff under age 60	20	2.3%	43	2.6%		
Consultants and individual contractors *TOTAL*	**3 268**	**100.0%**	**4 863**	**100.0%**	**242 261**	**28 911**
Level of education						
Doctorate or equivalent	417	12.8%				
Master's degree or equivalent	1 250	38.2%				
Bachelor's degree or equivalent	790	24.2%				
Less than Bachelor's degree	414	12.7%				
Not Available	*396*	*12.1%*				
Evaluation of performance						
Excellent			1 780	36.6%		
Good			2 311	47.5%		
Adequate			75	1.5%		
Not Adequate			18	0.4%		
Not Available			*728*	*15.0%*		

Table 2. Consultants and individual contractors by nationality, 1999

COUNTRY	CONSULTANTS				INDIVIDUAL CONTRACTORS				TOTAL			
	NUMBER OF PERSONS	NUMBER OF CONTRACTS	TOTAL DAYS WORKED	TOTAL FEES ($000)	NUMBER OF PERSONS	NUMBER OF CONTRACTS	TOTAL DAYS WORKED	TOTAL FEES ($000)	NUMBER OF PERSONS	NUMBER OF CONTRACTS	TOTAL DAYS WORKED	TOTAL FEES ($000)
Albania	6	13	518	34	9	19	477	27	15	32	995	61
Algeria	6	7	236	51	0	0	0	0	6	7	236	51
Antigua and Barbuda	2	2	126	45	0	0	0	0	2	2	126	45
Argentina	58	77	4 869	409	65	124	7 487	265	123	201	12 356	673
Armenia	3	4	39	8	1	1	8	1	4	5	47	9
Australia	42	58	2 770	460	4	12	241	51	46	70	3 010	511
Austria	7	15	794	74	24	41	1 211	117	31	56	2 005	191
Bangladesh	14	20	747	85	1	2	136	9	15	22	883	94
Barbados	4	4	342	47	0	0	0	0	4	4	342	47
Belarus	1	1	3	0	1	3	348	7	2	4	351	7
Belgium	14	15	752	197	2	5	276	29	16	20	1 028	227
Benin	8	8	599	85	0	0	0	0	8	8	599	85
Bhutan	1	1	30	1	0	0	0	0	1	1	30	1
Bolivia	8	8	284	36	1	1	19	1	9	9	303	37
Bosnia and Herzegovina	19	105	911	70	11	24	314	15	30	129	1 225	85
Botswana	1	1	181	48	0	0	0	0	1	1	181	48
Brazil	40	45	3 726	341	6	7	356	14	46	52	4 082	355
Bulgaria	1	2	24	4	3	3	85	3	4	5	109	7
Burkina Faso	8	8	821	51	0	0	0	0	8	8	821	51
Burundi	1	1	19	4	0	0	0	0	1	1	19	4
Cambodia	1	1	50	5	0	0	0	0	1	1	50	5
Cameroon	10	13	311	79	4	8	545	28	14	21	856	107
Canada	105	148	7 307	1 297	18	20	1 053	150	123	168	8 360	1 447
Central African Republic	1	1	31	0	1	1	9	1	2	2	40	1
Chad	1	1	31	2	0	0	0	0	1	1	31	2
Chile	119	175	9 924	999	152	367	17 818	709	271	542	27 742	1 708
China	23	35	1 801	275	7	11	853	84	30	46	2 654	359
Colombia	21	25	2 061	229	11	20	1 011	55	32	45	3 072	284
Congo	1	1	18	4	0	0	0	0	1	1	18	4
Congo, Dem. Rep.	2	2	49	4	1	1	183	0	3	3	232	4
Costa Rica	5	5	338	28	3	5	279	10	8	10	617	37
Côte d'Ivoire	6	6	487	38	1	1	150	3	7	7	637	41
Croatia	19	67	818	163	11	40	616	41	30	107	1 434	204
Cuba	2	2	153	19	1	1	16	1	3	3	169	20
Cyprus	3	3	315	112	0	0	0	0	3	3	315	112
Czech Republic	3	3	221	68	0	0	0	0	3	3	221	68
D.P.R. of Korea	2	2	290	4	0	0	0	0	2	2	290	4

55.321

COUNTRY	CONSULTANTS				INDIVIDUAL CONTRACTORS				TOTAL			
	NUMBER OF PERSONS	NUMBER OF CONTRACTS	TOTAL DAYS WORKED	TOTAL FEES ($000)	NUMBER OF PERSONS	NUMBER OF CONTRACTS	TOTAL DAYS WORKED	TOTAL FEES ($000)	NUMBER OF PERSONS	NUMBER OF CONTRACTS	TOTAL DAYS WORKED	TOTAL FEES ($000)
Denmark	8	11	954	132	2	2	31	3	10	13	985	135
Dominican Republic	3	3	272	35	0	0	0	0	3	3	272	35
Ecuador	6	8	649	66	3	7	370	15	9	15	1 019	80
Egypt	46	60	3 369	271	4	5	101	12	50	65	3 470	283
El Salvador	10	13	785	150	0	0	0	0	10	13	785	150
Equatorial Guinea	1	1	29	2	0	0	0	0	1	1	29	2
Estonia	3	4	198	29	1	1	53	1	4	5	251	30
Ethiopia	16	20	785	114	46	53	1 841	96.7	62	73	2 626	211
Fiji	2	2	77	4	0	0	0	0	2	2	77	4
Finland	9	10	640	245	1	1	31	2	10	11	671	247
France	125	174	9 614	1 441	30	41	3 145	332	155	215	12 759	1 773
Gambia	4	4	229	69	0	0	0	0	4	4	229	69
Germany	42	46	2 589	313	8	12	504	44	50	58	3 093	357
Ghana	13	14	1 002	186	0	0	0	0	13	14	1 002	186
Greece	2	3	318	19	0	0	0	0	2	3	318	19
Guatemala	3	4	133	50	1	1	47	8	4	5	180	58
Guinea	1	1	71	3	0	0	0	0	1	1	71	3
Guyana	2	2	43	9	0	0	0	0	2	2	43	9
Haiti	7	11	460	60	0	0	0	0	7	11	460	60
Honduras	3	3	256	34	0	0	0	0	3	3	256	34
Hungary	11	13	1 020	77	1	2	18	2	12	15	1 038	79
Iceland	3	3	163	26	1	1	0	12	4	4	163	38
India	76	90	4 213	712	1	1	14	1	77	91	4 227	713
Indonesia	5	6	385	58	0	0	0	0	5	6	385	58
Iran (Islamic Rep. of)	12	12	774	82	0	0	0	0	12	12	774	82
Iraq	2	2	111	24	0	0	0	0	2	2	111	24
Ireland	17	21	715	203	5	10	446	51	22	31	1 161	254
Israel	6	9	1 143	103	0	0	0	0	6	9	1 143	103
Italy	33	41	2 414	384	6	9	567	75	39	50	2 981	458
Jamaica	4	5	91	15	2	2	36	5	6	7	127	20
Japan	24	30	1 799	265	2	4	335	10	26	34	2 134	274
Jordan	21	25	1 735	123	4	6	364	23	25	31	2 099	145
Kazakhstan	2	2	47	3	0	0	0	0	2	2	47	3
Kenya	48	59	3 143	553	23	51	1 766	144	71	110	4 908	697
Kyrgyzstan	3	3	66	5	0	0	0	0	3	3	66	5
Lao, People's Dem. Rep.	1	1	20	6	0	0	0	0	1	1	20	6
Latvia	1	1	29	5	0	0	0	0	1	1	29	5

COUNTRY	CONSULTANTS				INDIVIDUAL CONTRACTORS				TOTAL			
	NUMBER OF PERSONS	NUMBER OF CONTRACTS	TOTAL DAYS WORKED	TOTAL FEES ($000)	NUMBER OF PERSONS	NUMBER OF CONTRACTS	TOTAL DAYS WORKED	TOTAL FEES ($000)	NUMBER OF PERSONS	NUMBER OF CONTRACTS	TOTAL DAYS WORKED	TOTAL FEES ($000)
Lebanon	44	53	3 486	222	45	82	2 852	149	89	135	6 338	371
Liberia	2	2	60	2	1	2	125	18	3	4	185	19
Lithuania	2	2	92	6	0	0	0	0	2	2	92	6
Luxembourg	1	1	3	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	3	0
Malawi	2	2	50	8	0	0	0	0	2	2	50	8
Malaysia	18	20	872	75	1	1	61	4	19	21	933	79
Mali	5	7	477	40	0	0	0	0	5	7	477	40
Malta	3	3	61	17	1	3	2	0	4	6	63	17
Mauritania	3	3	277	12	0	0	0	0	3	3	277	12
Mauritius	2	4	191	25	0	0	0	0	2	4	191	25
Mexico	17	31	1 917	155	2	2	81	10	19	33	1 998	164
Mongolia	5	5	262	28	0	0	0	0	5	5	262	28
Morocco	7	9	275	56	1	1	31	1	8	10	306	58
Mozambique	1	2	37	6	1	1	90	16	2	3	127	22
Myanmar	4	4	134	15	2	2	223	12	6	6	357	27
Namibia	3	3	284	56	0	0	0	0.0	3	3	284	56.2
Nepal	16	18	1 000	60	1	1	15	1	17	19	1 015	62
Netherlands	33	39	1 901	253	21	27	919	97	54	66	2 820	350
New Zealand	14	20	1 023	170	0	0	0	0	14	20	1 023	170
Nicaragua	2	2	144	13	0	0	0	0	2	2	144	13
Niger	1	1	35	9	0	0	0	0	1	1	35	9
Nigeria	18	21	1 146	158	8	11	870	224	26	32	2 016	382
Norway	7	7	391	83	6	15	346	22	13	22	737	106
Pakistan	14	15	601	86	2	3	60	14	16	18	661	100
Palau	2	2	270	16	0	0	0	0	2	2	270	16
Papua New Guinea	1	1	65	5	0	0	0	0	1	1	65	5
Paraguay	1	1	26	3	0	0	0	0	1	1	26	3
Peru	29	40	1 847	233	6	16	1 222	81	35	56	3 069	314
Philippines	43	56	2 914	380	4	4	146	12	47	60	3 060	392
Poland	8	9	393	35	5	10	312	30	13	19	705	65
Portugal	8	9	302	102	2	2	90	14	10	11	392	116
Republic of Korea	16	19	1 371	168	0	0	0	0	16	19	1 371	168
Romania	5	8	430	41	2	2	268	19	7	10	698	60
Russian Federation	29	40	2 657	429	13	26	1 064	106	42	66	3 721	536
Rwanda	3	4	270	30	5	8	659	42	8	12	929	71
Saudi Arabia	3	3	300	8	0	0	0	0	3	3	300	8
Senegal	14	16	874	205	1	1	10	2	15	17	884	207

COUNTRY	CONSULTANTS				INDIVIDUAL CONTRACTORS				TOTAL			
	NUMBER OF PERSONS	NUMBER OF CONTRACTS	TOTAL DAYS WORKED	TOTAL FEES ($000)	NUMBER OF PERSONS	NUMBER OF CONTRACTS	TOTAL DAYS WORKED	TOTAL FEES ($000)	NUMBER OF PERSONS	NUMBER OF CONTRACTS	TOTAL DAYS WORKED	TOTAL FEES ($000)
Seychelles	2	2	119	17	0	0	0	0	2	2	119	17
Sierra Leone	5	6	310	45	1	2	85	6	6	8	395	51
Singapore	12	16	763	102	0	0	0	0	12	16	763	102
Slovakia	2	2	166	12	1	1	14	2	3	3	180	14
Slovenia	3	3	186	39	1	4	25	5	4	7	211	44
Somalia	1	1	150	10	0	0	0	0	1	1	150	10
South Africa	15	18	520	178	3	3	148	33	18	21	668	211
Spain	18	22	1 318	145	6	14	580	41	24	36	1 898	186
Sri Lanka	9	10	386	52	4	4	191	29	13	14	577	81
Sudan	4	5	202	26	3	7	325	62	7	12	527	88
Suriname	1	2	359	9	0	0	0	0	1	2	359	9
Sweden	14	19	1 639	315	3	3	253	12	17	22	1 892	327
Switzerland	28	37	1 917	325	6	6	114	20	34	43	2 031	345
Syrian Arab Republic	12	14	841	36	3	7	116	15	15	21	956	51
Tajikistan	3	3	80	4	1	1	22	1	4	4	102	5
Tanzania, United Rep. of	8	8	278	26	45	100	6 913	120	53	108	7 191	146
Thailand	31	47	1 613	165	14	25	863	47	45	72	2 476	212
TFYR of Macedonia	2	2	18	20	2	3	151	5	4	5	169	25
Togo	5	5	213	42	0	0	0	0	5	5	213	42
Tonga	1	1	66	3	0	0	0	0	1	1	66	3
Trinidad and Tobago	3	5	183	31	0	0	0	0	3	5	183	31
Tunisia	9	11	353	82	0	0	0	0	9	11	353	82
Turkey	3	3	472	30	0	0	0	0	3	3	472	30
Uganda	14	16	738	128	0	0	0	0	14	16	738	128
Ukraine	4	7	348	34	2	4	277	26	6	11	625	60
United Kingdom	177	238	10 046	2 244	51	99	2 717	364	228	337	12 763	2 608
United States of America	317	437	26 113	4 342	54	90	4 591	515	371	527	30 704	4 857
Uruguay	22	28	1 896	168	8	12	741	49	30	40	2 637	217
Uzbekistan	2	2	172	8	0	0	0	0	2	2	172	8
Vanuatu	2	2	128	12	0	0	0	0	2	2	128	12
Venezuela	4	5	491	38	0	0	0	0	4	5	491	38
Viet Nam	6	7	192	18	1	1	120	29	7	8	312	48
Yemen	5	6	370	18	1	3	0	13	6	9	370	31
Yugoslavia	12	28	683	127	25	49	804	59	37	77	1 487	186
Zambia	5	6	209	24	0	0	0	0	5	6	209	24
Zimbabwe	8	9	246	38	0	0	0	0	8	9	246	38
Unknown	84	103	5 111	504	42	59	2 945	253	126	162	8 056	757

COUNTRY	CONSULTANTS				INDIVIDUAL CONTRACTORS				TOTAL			
	NUMBER OF PERSONS	NUMBER OF CONTRACTS	TOTAL DAYS WORKED	TOTAL FEES ($000)	NUMBER OF PERSONS	NUMBER OF CONTRACTS	TOTAL DAYS WORKED	TOTAL FEES ($000)	NUMBER OF PERSONS	NUMBER OF CONTRACTS	TOTAL DAYS WORKED	TOTAL FEES ($000)
TOTALS	2 382	3 220	167 664	23 873	886	1 643	74 597	5 038	3 268	4 863	242 261	28 911

Note: The following 43 countries provided neither consultants nor individual contractors during 1999: Afghanistan, Andorra, Angola, Azerbaijan, Bahrain, Bahamas, Belize, Brunei Darussalam, Comoros, Cape Verde, Djibouti, Dominica, Eritrea, Gabon, Georgia, Grenada, Guinea-Bissau, Kiribati, Kuwait, Lesotho, Libyan Arab Jamahiriya, Liechtenstein, Madagascar, Maldives, Marshall Islands, Micronesia (Federated States of), Monaco, Nauru, Oman, Panama, Qatar, Republic of Moldova, Saint Kitts and Nevis, Saint Lucia, Saint Vincent and the Grenadines, Samoa, San Marino, Sao Tome and Principe, Solomon Islands, Swaziland, Turkmenistan, Tuvalu, United Arab Emirates.

Table 3. Purpose of engagement of consultants and individual contractors, 1999

PURPOSE OF ENGAGEMENT	CONSULTANTS		INDIVIDUAL CONTRACTORS		TOTAL	
	NUMBER OF CONTRACTS	PERCENTAGE OF CONTRACTS	NUMBER OF CONTRACTS	PERCENTAGE OF CONTRACTS	NUMBER OF CONTRACTS	PERCENTAGE OF CONTRACTS
Programme planning	37	1.1%	6	0.4%	43	0.9%
Programme implementation	743	23.1%	267	16.3%	1 010	20.8%
Programme evaluation	51	1.6%	3	0.2%	54	1.1%
Preparation of meetings	130	4.0%	104	6.3%	234	4.8%
Drafting of manuscripts	397	12.3%	137	8.3%	534	11.0%
Lectures training courses	335	10.4%	150	9.1%	485	10.0%
Special analytical studies	531	16.5%	134	8.2%	665	13.7%
Advisory services	454	14.1%	14	0.9%	468	9.6%
Administrative services	473	14.7%	579	35.2%	1 052	21.6%
Building services	21	0.7%	223	13.6%	244	5.0%
Various other purposes	48	1.5%	26	1.6%	74	1.5%
TOTAL CONTRACTS	3 220	100.0%	1 643	100.0%	4 863	100.0%

Table 4. Engagement of consultants and individual contractors by CCOG job family, 1999

OCCUPATIONAL GROUP	CONSULTANTS		INDIVIDUAL CONTRACTORS		TOTAL	
	NUMBER OF CONTRACTS	SHARE OF CONTRACTS	NUMBER OF CONTRACTS	SHARE OF CONTRACTS	NUMBER OF CONTRACTS	SHARE OF CONTRACTS
PROFESSIONAL, MANAGERIAL AND TECHNICAL WORK a	40	1.2%	11	0.7%	51	1.0%
Administrative specialists	339	10.5%	95	5.8%	434	8.9%
Architects, engineers	42	1.3%	23	1.4%	65	1.3%
Archivists, curators, information specialists and librarians	1	0.0%	10	0.6%	11	0.2%
Artists	1	0.0%	2	0.1%	3	0.1%
Economists	651	20.2%	59	3.6%	710	14.6%
Education specialists	70	2.2%	114	6.9%	184	3.8%
Jurists	68	2.1%	15	0.9%	83	1.7%
Life scientists	23	0.7%	0	0.0%	23	0.5%
Dental, nutrition, medical, nursing and veterinary specialists	46	1.4%	32	1.9%	78	1.6%
Physical scientists	41	1.3%	5	0.3%	46	0.9%
Social scientists	334	10.4%	16	1.0%	350	7.2%
Statisticians and mathematicians	61	1.9%	1	0.1%	62	1.3%
Transportation specialists	43	1.3%	0	0.0%	43	0.9%
Writers, translators, interpreters	584	18.1%	419	25.5%	1 003	20.6%
Professional, managerial and technical specialists for which no job family exists	175	5.4%	26	1.6%	201	4.1%
Environmental specialists	109	3.4%	13	0.8%	122	2.5%
Electronic communications specialists	41	1.3%	26	1.6%	67	1.4%
Cultural development specialists	1	0.0%	0	0.0%	1	0.0%
SUBTOTAL PROFESSIONAL WORK	**2 670**	**82.9%**	**867**	**52.8%**	**3 537**	**72.7%**
SUPPORT WORK RELATED TO PROFESSIONAL, MANAGERIAL AND TECHNICAL OCCUPATIONS b	23	0.7%	26	1.6%	49	1.0%
Administration-related	93	2.9%	348	21.2%	441	9.1%
Architecture and engineering-related	1	0.0%	29	1.8%	30	0.6%
Arts-related	2	0.1%	1	0.1%	3	0.1%
Economics-related	85	2.6%	25	1.5%	110	2.3%
Education-related	1	0.0%	2	0.1%	3	0.1%
Law-related	7	0.2%	4	0.2%	11	0.2%
Social sciences-related	5	0.2%	1	0.1%	6	0.1%
Statistics and mathematics-related	14	0.4%	22	1.3%	36	0.7%
Writing, translation and interpretation-related	7	0.2%	14	0.9%	21	0.4%
Support work for which no job family exists	20	0.6%	21	1.3%	41	0.8%
Environmental science-related	2	0.1%	1	0.1%	3	0.1%
Electronic communications-related	10	0.3%	11	0.7%	21	0.4%
SUBTOTAL SUPPORT WORK	**270**	**8.4%**	**505**	**30.7%**	**775**	**15.9%**

OCCUPATIONAL GROUP	CONSULTANTS		INDIVIDUAL CONTRACTORS		TOTAL	
	NUMBER OF CONTRACTS	SHARE OF CONTRACTS	NUMBER OF CONTRACTS	SHARE OF CONTRACTS	NUMBER OF CONTRACTS	SHARE OF CONTRACTS
PRODUCTION, SERVICE AND TRANSPORT WORK c	4	0.1%	22	1.3%	26	0.5%
Structural and physical plant construction and maintenance	2	0.1%	1	0.1%	3	0.1%
Transport	1	0.0%	9	0.5%	10	0.2%
General building maintenance	10	0.3%	24	1.5%	34	0.7%
Printing	4	0.1%	44	2.7%	48	1.0%
Security and safety operations	9	0.3%	13	0.8%	22	0.5%
SUBTOTAL SERVICE WORK	**26**	**0.8%**	**91**	**5.5%**	**117**	**2.4%**
Not specified	*254*	*7.9%*	*180*	*11.0%*	*434*	*8.9%*
TOTAL CONTRACTS	**3 220**	100.0%	**1 643**	100.0%	**4 863**	100.0%

[a] Including occupations concerned with the theoretical or practical aspects of such fields of human endeavour as art, science, engineering, education, medicine, law, business and economics, and administrative, managerial and technical work. Most of these are occupations that require substantial academic preparation, usually at the university level.

[b] Including occupations concerned with recording, compiling, reviewing and processing data; classifying, filing, retrieving and updating publications, correspondence and other reference materials; providing information; transmitting mail and messages; coordinating meetings and inspections; and carrying out other duties in accordance with established practices and procedures in support of occupations responsible for the management, creation, analysis and presentation of plans and programmes. The occupations included in the support group may also involve the performance of technical work in a specific subject area where practical application rather than theoretical knowledge is required.

[c] Including occupations concerned with operating equipment; providing transport services; providing protection against crime, fire and accidents; providing food services; storing, distributing and accounting for materials; fabricating, erecting, installing, paving, painting, repairing and similarly working on structures or structural parts; and using manufactured components and assemblies to produce products. Many of these occupations require the application of the knowledge and physical skills of a craft or trade.

Table 5. Duration of contracts for consultants and individual contractors, 1999

	CONSULTANTS		INDIVIDUAL CONTRACTORS		TOTAL	
DURATION	NUMBER OF CONTRACTS	SHARE OF CONTRACTS	NUMBER OF CONTRACTS	SHARE OF CONTRACTS	NUMBER OF CONTRACTS	SHARE OF CONTRACTS
(1) Under 1 month	1 290	40.1%	675	41.1%	1 965	40.4%
(2) 1 to 3 months	1 098	34.1%	573	34.9%	1 671	34.4%
(3) 3 to 6 months	601	18.7%	312	19.0%	913	18.8%
(4) 6 to 12 months	207	6.4%	81	4.9%	288	5.9%
(5) 12 to 24 months	23	0.7%	2	0.1%	25	0.8%
(6) Over 24 months	1	0.0%	0	0.0%	1	0.0%
TOTAL CONTRACTS	3 220	100.0%	1 643	100.0%	4 863	100.0%

Table 6. Time actually worked for consultants and individual contractors, 1999

	CONSULTANTS		INDIVIDUAL CONTRACTORS		TOTAL	
DURATION	NUMBER OF CONTRACTS	SHARE OF CONTRACTS	NUMBER OF CONTRACTS	SHARE OF CONTRACTS	NUMBER OF CONTRACTS	SHARE OF CONTRACTS
(1) Under 1 month	1 624	50.4%	860	52.3%	2 484	51.1%
(2) 1 to 3 months	1 038	32.2%	514	31.3%	1 552	31.9%
(3) 3 to 6 months	453	14.1%	226	13.8%	679	14.0%
(4) 6 to 12 months	96	3.0%	42	2.6%	138	2.8%
(5) 12 to 24 months	9	0.3%	1	0.1%	10	0.2%
(6) Over 24 months	0	0.0%	0	0.0%	0	0.0%
TOTAL CONTRACTS	3 220	100.0%	1 643	100.0%	4 863	100.0%

Table 7. Consultants and individual contractors, by department, gender, level of education, duration of contract and evaluation of performance, 1999

	CONSULTANTS		INDIVIDUAL CONTRACTORS		TOTAL		DURATION	EDUCATIONAL LEVEL [a]					EVALUATION				
DEPARTMENT or OFFICE	NUMBER OF PERSONS	PERCENTAGE FEMALE	NUMBER OF PERSONS	PERCENTAGE FEMALE	NUMBER OF PERSONS	PERCENTAGE FEMALE	DAYS	PHD	MA	BA	OTHER	N/A	EXCELLENT	GOOD	ACCEPT-ABLE	UNSATIS-FACTORY	N/A
DDA	12	0.0%	1	0.0%	13	0.0%	887	5	1	4	3	0	8	4	0	0	2
DESA	490	25.5%	5	80.0%	495	26.1%	27 848	176	203	64	11	41	188	293	6	14	80
DGAACS	18	0.0%	2	0.0%	20	0.0%	2 873	2	7	10	0	1	1	2	0	0	21
DM	76	36.8%	19	68.4%	95	43.2%	9 001	31	30	25	8	1	68	77	0	0	4
DPA	42	0.0%	0	N/A	42	0.0%	4 159	5	31	3	1	2	8	19	0	0	24
DPI	83	51.8%	52	63.5%	135	56.3%	12 083	5	52	68	10	0	85	63	3	0	37
DPKO	3	0.0%	1	0.0%	4	0.0%	864	0	3	1	0	0	7	0	0	0	0
DPKOFALD	32	0.0%	2	0.0%	34	0.0%	2 174	3	26	3	1	1	10	18	4	0	13
ECA	36	44.4%	53	22.6%	89	31.5%	3 396	5	28	19	33	4	1	27	1	0	63
ECE	40	25.0%	25	52.0%	65	35.4%	2 814	5	32	24	1	3	33	26	1	0	20
ECLAC	310	33.5%	267	52.4%	577	42.3%	60 088	26	53	115	54	329	406	621	6	0	3
EOSG	21	0.0%	0	N/A	21	0.0%	1 555	3	11	5	2	0	7	6	1	1	9
ESCAP	303	19.8%	31	48.4%	334	22.5%	15 718	37	237	43	15	2	146	181	16	1	87
ESCWA	138	23.9%	63	57.1%	201	34.3%	12 848	11	119	39	28	4	101	166	17	1	5
ICSC	8	0.0%	1	0.0%	9	0.0%	276	1	5	2	0	1	4	3	0	0	2
ICTFY	131	38.9%	133	45.1%	264	42.0%	11 307	10	51	123	80	0	299	284	8	1	29
ICTR	1	100.0%	74	24.3%	75	25.3%	10 359	0	2	27	45	1	91	40	0	0	17
OCHA	14	50.0%	3	100.0%	17	58.8%	1 791	2	7	3	1	4	5	19	0	0	4
OCDDP	4	0.0%	1	0.0%	5	0.0%	56	1	1	3	0	0	3	1	0	0	0
OHCHR	73	0.0%	0	N/A	73	0.0%	5 372	2	58	0	0	13	37	35	2	0	18
OIOS	9	0.0%	0	N/A	9	0.0%	1 270	1	4	4	0	0	7	2	0	0	3
OLA	11	36.4%	8	62.5%	19	47.4%	2 578	3	9	4	2	1	19	1	0	0	2
UNCHS	0	N/A	0	N/A	0	N/A	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
UNCTAD	196	0.0%	0	N/A	196	0.0%	13 020	16	38	74	68	0	62	61	2	0	87
UNEP	1	0.0%	0	N/A	1	0.0%	181	0	1	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0
UNFIP	0	N/A	0	N/A	0	N/A	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
UNOG	117	32.5%	30	63.3%	147	38.8%	15 529	30	70	28	14	5	55	87	1	0	37
UNOIP	14	0.0%	0	N/A	14	0.0%	2 233	1	2	7	4	0	6	13	3	0	0
UNON	185	21.1%	77	37.7%	262	26.0%	17 120	29	142	78	12	1	63	237	2	0	75
UNOV	52	13.5%	42	81.0%	94	43.6%	5 085	13	40	20	21	0	51	24	2	0	54
TOTAL	2 420	23.4%	890	48.8%	3 310	30.2%	242 484	423	1 263	796	414	414	1 772	2 310	75	18	696

Note: The totals for the person counts may exceed the baseline, since some persons might have been engaged by multiple departments.

[a] PHD = Doctorate or equiv.; MA = Master's degree or equiv.; BA = Bachelor's degree or equiv.; OTHER = less than Bachelor's degree; N/A = not available.

Table 8. Expenditure on consultants and individual contractors, by source of funding, 1999

	CONSULTANTS			INDIVIDUAL CONTRACTORS			TOTAL		
DEPARTMENT or OFFICE	ASSESSED CONTRIBUTIONS ($000)	EXTRABUDGETARY ($000)	TOTAL ($000)	ASSESSED CONTRIBUTIONS ($000)	EXTRABUDGETARY ($000)	TOTAL ($000)	ASSESSED CONTRIBUTIONS ($000)	EXTRABUDGETARY ($000)	TOTAL ($000)
DDA	78	57	135	0	0	0	78	58	135
DESA	1 137	4 851	5 988	10	18	27	1 147	4 868	6 015
DGAACS	214	0	214	24	0	24	239	0	239
DM	1 106	108	1 214	248	0	248	1 354	108	1 461
DPA	715	233	949	0	0	0	715	233	949
DPI	562	189	751	212	163	375	774	352	1 127
DPKO	0	152	152	0	2	2	0	154	154
DPKOFALD	75	413	488	0	20	20	75	432	507
ECA	97	50	147	25	28	54	123	78	200
ECE	68	122	190	26	51	77	94	173	267
ECLAC	497	1 932	2 429	722	515	1 237	1 220	2 447	3 667
EOSG	47	280	327	0	0	0	47	280	327
ESCAP	380	1 297	1 678	29	53	82	410	1 350	1 760
ESCWA	292	211	503	221	64	285	513	275	788
ICSC	0	48	48	0	16	16	0	64	64
ICTFY	863	0	863	494	0	494	1 357	0	1 357
ICTR	73	4	78	323	104	427	396	108	504
OCHA	122	188	310	4	6	10	127	193	320
ODCCP	0	10	11	0	3	3	0	13	14
OHCHR	86	493	578	0	0	0	86	493	578
OIOS	97	4	101	0	0	0	97	4	101
OLA	313	6	318	114	0	114	427	6	432
UNCHS	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
UNCTAD	234	1 312	1 545	0	0	0	2	1 312	1 545
UNEP	0	15	15	0	0	0	0	15	15
UNFIP	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
UNOG	10	1 231	1 241	29	261	290	39	1 493	1 532
UNOIP	0	861	861	0	0	0	0	861	861
UNON	301	1 852	2 154	82	749	830	383	2 601	2 984
UNOV	222	112	334	141	108	248	362	220	583
Unspecif.			252			173			425
TOTAL	7 590	16 031	23 873	2 705	2 160	5 038	10 295	18 191	28 911

Note: Data on expenditures are derived from IMIS departments and offices at United Nations Headquarters in New York, and from individual updates submitted by offices away from Headquarters to the Paradox database of the Office of Human Resources Management of the United Nations Secretariat.

[a] Fees only.

Table 9. Institutional contractors, 1999 [a]

DEPARTMENT or OFFICE	NUMBER OF CONTRACTORS	NUMBER OF CONTRACTS	DURATION (MONTHS)	EXPENDITURE ($000)
ECA	31	37	64	378
ECLAC	21	23	147	459
ESCAP	15	17	103	334
ESCWA	4	5	13	33
ICTFY	255	766	600	1 388
ICTR	8	9	53	822
NY (HQ) [b]	84	109	121	3 485
OHCHR	1	1	1	30
UNCHS	28	29	214	2 524
UNCTAD	15	20	31	155
UNEP	29	34	160	5 399
UNOG [c]	96	123	320	9 760
UNON	24	29	420	292
UNOV [d]	4	4	10	42
TOTAL	615	1 206	2 257	25 101

[a] Institutional or corporate contractors are institutions or corporations that provide goods or services to the United Nations on a direct contractual basis (ST/AI/327 of 23 January 1985).

[b] Including all Departments and Offices in New York.

[c] Including ECE.

[d] Including ODCCP.

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Advancement of women

Trafficking in women and girls

Report of the Secretary-General**

Summary

Pursuant to General Assembly resolution 53/116 of 9 December 1998, the present report provides information about steps taken in several forums of the United Nations and at the regional and national levels, to implement the recommendations for action contained in that resolution. The report identifies areas in which further efforts are needed.

* A/55/150.
** The late submission of the present report was a result of the receipt of information requested by the Secretary-General.

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I. Introduction

1. The present report is submitted pursuant to General Assembly resolution 53/116 of 9 December 1998, on trafficking in women and girls, in which the Assembly requested the Secretary-General to report to it at its fifty-fifth session on the implementation of that resolution. The report is based, inter alia, on information contained in the replies to a request by the Secretary-General for information on the question, circulated during 2000 to Member States,[1] organizations of the United Nations system[2] and other intergovernmental organizations.[3]

2. Since the adoption of the above-mentioned resolution, trafficking in women and girls has been the focus of attention within the United Nations system, as well as at the regional and national levels. Trafficking has been the subject of a large number of consultations by Governments and non-governmental organizations, including a regional consultation of the 10 member countries of the Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN), international and regional intergovernmental organizations and non-governmental organizations held at Manila in March 2000 under the auspices of the Asian Regional Initiative Against Trafficking in Women and Girls (ARIAT). International and national non-governmental organizations and other members of civil society have been responsible for the creation of educational campaigns to prevent trafficking and sensitize communities to the existence of the issue and have been active in the provision of assistance and support to victims of trafficking. Trafficking in women and children for sexual exploitation has also been addressed in a number of reports and monographs, including the final report of an International Organization for Migration (IOM) and European Union project, entitled "Analysis of data and statistical resources available in the European Union member States on trafficking in women and children for the purposes of sexual exploitation", issued in June 1998, and the United States Department of Central Intelligence Monograph entitled "International trafficking in women to the United States: a contemporary manifestation of slavery and organized crime", published in April 2000.

3. The *Human Development Report, 1999*[4] identified the trafficking of women and girls as one of the criminal activities that had increased with globalization, while the *Global Report on Crime and Justice*, published by the United Nations Office for Drug Control and Crime Prevention in the same year, suggested that although statistics were limited, trafficking in women and children particularly affected countries of Asia, Europe and Latin America and, to a lesser extent, those in Africa.[5] The attention that the issue has attracted over the past two years has led to the introduction of concrete measures at the national, regional and international levels to confront the issue. Nevertheless, further action is required at all levels to address what appears to be a growing problem. In particular, a mechanism is required within the United Nations system to coordinate action. In addition, the compilation and dissemination of successful interventions and strategies to confront the various dimensions of the problem, as called for by the General Assembly in its resolution 53/116, should be a priority.

II. National measures

4. Measures introduced by Member States to address trafficking in women and girls were summarized in the report of the Secretary-General on review and appraisal of the implementation of the Platform for Action,[6] submitted to the third session of the Commission on the Status of Women acting as preparatory committee for the twenty-third special session of the General Assembly, on the theme "Women 2000: gender equality, development and peace for the twenty-first century" (E/CN.6/2000/PC/2 and Corr.2 and 3, paras. 313-319).

5. The report, based predominantly on replies of Member States to the questionnaire of the Secretary-General on implementation of the Platform for Action, draws attention to the educational campaigns directed at potential victims that have been implemented in several countries, and the establishment of national committees, task forces or plans of action to address the issue. Training for front-line agencies on how to address trafficking in women and children and the development of procedures in this context have also been introduced by several Member States, as have projects on counselling, guidance and support of women affected by trafficking.

6. The report also indicates that protective measures, including repatriation and airport assistance, have also been introduced by a number of countries, with one Member State having put in place pre-deployment programmes for those seeking to migrate

to work, as well as mandatory orientation programmes on migration in elementary and secondary school curricula. New laws which address trafficking, including that carried out through promises of employment or arranged marriages, have also been introduced by several States, with a number having amended their immigration legislation to grant victims of trafficking the possibility of limited residence permits for humanitarian reasons, and so that they can be available as witnesses during the prosecution of traffickers and file civil claims against them. Information is also provided in the report on the implementation of the Hague Ministerial Declaration on the European Guidelines for Effective Measures to Prevent and Combat Trafficking in Women for the Purpose of Sexual Exploitation, adopted by the European Union Ministers for Equality and Justice in 1997, including implementation in the Netherlands and Sweden where, pursuant to the Declaration, a national rapporteur on trafficking has been nominated.

7. Information provided by Member States in response to the request of the Secretary-General also indicated that several Member States had created or continue to support coordinating bodies which address trafficking in persons.

8. Belgium reported that, in 1999, new general instructions were issued by the Minister of Justice to ensure the application of previous directives concerning trade in human beings and child pornography. The general instruction was aimed at ensuring the development of uniform policies in this context, and also envisaged the creation of a national database on trafficking based on standard data collection forms. Information on trafficking contained in the database will be made available to the Central Unit on Trade in Human Beings of the Central Bureau for Investigations which has been operative since 1992.

9. In Denmark, a public and international hearing on trafficking organized by the Equal Status Council, and the issuance by the Copenhagen police in 1999 of an operation plan to combat crime related to trafficking in women and prostitution, have been followed by the establishment by the Minister of Equality of an interdepartmental working group to strengthen and coordinate efforts in this area. In 1999, the Belarus Ministry of Internal Affairs created a new department responsible for such issues as trafficking. Since its establishment, an international seminar on trafficking in women and girls has been convened by that department and it has become involved in gathering statistical information on the problem.

10. In Thailand, a memorandum of understanding on common guidelines of practices for agencies concerned where women and children are victims of human trafficking was agreed in 1999 with the aim of assisting women and child victims, including through the provision of temporary shelter and rehabilitation in their home countries. The Thai Department of Women also created a national secretariat on trafficking in women and children in the Mekong subregion. An inter-agency national committee was created in 1998 by the Mexican Government to carry out the plan of action against sexual exploitation which seeks, inter alia, to prevent trafficking in children and the reintegration of victims.

11. A number of Member States have developed strategies to assist victims of trafficking. In Austria, a victim protection facility has been established which supports trafficked women in psychological, health, legal and family matters and in their return to their countries of origin. In Belgium, for example, officially subsidized reception centres, offering psychological and social assistance, as well as legal aid, have been established in each region.

12. Eighty-four reception homes have been set up in Thailand and provide psychological assistance to victims for a six-month period. In addition, welfare protection and vocational development centres for women, which provide assistance and vocational training, including assistance for the victim's reintegration into society, operate in Thailand, while short vocational courses for vulnerable young women and former prostitutes are also provided as a preventive measure. Assistance in job placement is also provided, as are loans for income-generating projects.

13. Through its national programme of action for children, Mexico has provided assistance to repatriated minors, including through ensuring the safe and orderly return of those who migrated over the border. A network of shelters for minors has been established, and Mexican consulates have increased their protection efforts for women and children. In Ecuador, a pilot project with qualitative and quantitative investigation, prevention and assistance, law reform and social mobilization elements has been followed by the production of various outputs to combat trafficking. These include an investigation protocol, a model for

investigation, including a video portrayal of investigation, and the inclusion of sexual crimes in the new code on children and adolescents.

14. In September 1998, the Ukraine Cabinet of Ministries adopted a special programme to prevent trafficking in women and girls. Programme components include awareness-raising campaigns directed at vulnerable young women, which are conducted through social service centres, and the establishment of hotlines. More crisis centres are being established, and Ukraine has entered into an agreement with IOM on assistance to victims and exchange of information. Agreements with border States have also been reached with regard to the exchange of information, coordination of activity and mutual assistance to prevent trafficking.

15. In addition to legislation relating to the exploitation of prostitution and related crimes,[7] specific provisions have been adopted in several Member States to combat trafficking. Article 21 of the Paraguayan Penal Code provides punishments for those involved in trafficking for the purposes of prostitution. The Paraguayan Adoptions Act 1997, which entered into force in 1999, includes specific provisions to preclude the kidnapping, sale and trafficking in children under cover of adoption. The Cuban Penal Code was modified in 1997 to include trafficking in persons,[8] and in 1999 to address trafficking in minors.[9] Amendments to the Mexican General Population Act, which entered into force in 1996, established severe penalties for trafficking of persons into and out of Mexico.[10] In Cyprus, legislation to combat trafficking in human beings and the exploitation of children was enacted in January 2000.[11] This legislation introduces new penalties in this context, and extends the jurisdiction of Cypriot courts to hear cases and impose penalties extraterritorially. It also provides that activities connected with trafficking fall within anti-money-laundering legislation.[12] In addition, victims of sexual exploitation must be provided with a temporary residence and psychological and medical support, and they are entitled to compensation.

16. The Belgian Trade in Human Beings and Child Pornography Act, adopted in April 1995, introduced significant penalties for traffickers, while more recently Ministerial Directives provide for the protection of and assistance to victims who wish to make statements against those involved in their exploitation, which includes limited or permanent residence permission. In Austria, a new statutory crime of exploitative trafficking was introduced in 1997,[13] while the 1997 Aliens Act provides for limited residence permits for victims to allow them to testify in prosecutions against traffickers and to bring civil claims.[14] In May 1999, Luxembourg adopted provisions to reinforce existing penal provisions on trafficking in women and the exploitation of children. The Thai Measures on Prevention and Suppression of Trafficking in Women and Children Act 1997 allows officials to detain trafficking victims for the purposes of factual clarification and provides that victims shall be given shelter and basic necessities before repatriation. In 1998, amendments to the Criminal Code of Ukraine defining trafficking as a criminal activity were introduced,[15] while recent amendments to the Belarus Criminal Code, which are not yet in force, criminalize activities relating to sexual exploitation.

III. Measures taken within the United Nations system

17. Since the adoption of General Assembly resolution 53/116, a number of United Nations bodies have addressed the issue of trafficking in women and girls and several have made recommendations aimed at the prevention of trafficking and the reintegration of victims. While, in general, the activities of these bodies have focused on the adoption of resolutions and recommendations that reflect the need to take action to address trafficking in women and girls, there have also been significant efforts made by bodies of the United Nations system to translate these into action. At the operational level, United Nations action has been marked by a collaborative and cooperative approach, both with United Nations partners and other international and regional organizations, as well as non-governmental organizations.

A. Twenty-third special session of the General Assembly

18. At its twenty-third special session on the theme "Women 2000: gender equality, development and peace for the twenty-first century", the General Assembly, by resolution S-23/3 of 10 June 2000, adopted further actions and initiatives to implement the Beijing Declaration and Platform for Action. Building upon the Platform for Action, agreement was reached on a

number of new and strengthened actions to be taken at the national level with regard to trafficking. Governments were to take appropriate measures to address the root factors, including external factors that encourage trafficking in women and girls for prostitution and other forms of commercialized sex, forced marriages and forced labour in order to eliminate trafficking in women, including by strengthening legislations with a view to providing better protection of the rights of women and girls and to punishing the perpetrators through both criminal and civil measures. Governments were to devise, enforce and strengthen effective measures to combat and eliminate all forms of trafficking in women and girls through a comprehensive anti-trafficking strategy consisting of inter alia, legislative measures, prevention campaigns, information exchange, assistance and protection for and reintegration of the victims and prosecution of all the offenders involved, including intermediaries. They were also to consider preventing, within the legal framework and in accordance with national policies, victims of trafficking, in particular women and girls, from being prosecuted for their illegal entry or residence, taking into account that they are victims of exploitation. Further, they were to consider setting up or strengthening a national coordinating mechanism, for example, a national rapporteur or an inter-agency body, with the participation of civil society, including non-governmental organizations, to encourage the exchange of information and to report on data, root causes, factors and trends in violence against women, in particular trafficking.

19. The General Assembly also agreed that Governments, regional and international organizations, including the United Nations system and international financial institutions and other actors, as appropriate, should intensify cooperation between States of origin, transit and destination to prevent, suppress and punish trafficking in persons, especially women and children, and support the ongoing negotiations on the draft protocol on trafficking which supplements the draft United Nations Convention against Transnational Organized Crime. They were also to pursue and support national, regional and international strategies to reduce the risk to women and girls, including those who are refugees and displaced persons, as well as women migrant workers, of becoming victims of trafficking; strengthen national legislation by further defining the crime of trafficking in all its elements and by reinforcing the punishment accordingly; enact social and economic policies and programmes, as well as information and awareness-raising initiatives, to prevent and combat trafficking in persons, especially women and children; prosecute perpetrators of trafficking; provide measures to support, assist and protect trafficked persons in their countries of origin and destination; and facilitate their return to and support their reintegration into their countries of origin.

B. Tenth United Nations Congress on the Prevention of Crime and the Treatment of Offenders

20. The Tenth United Nations Congress on the Prevention of Crime and the Treatment of Offenders was held at Vienna, from 10 to 17 April 2000. The disproportionately adverse impact that transnational organized crime, including trafficking, has on women and girls was addressed during the Congress workshop on women in the criminal justice system (see A/CONF.187/12 and A/CONF.187/L.6), while in the "Vienna Declaration on Crime and Justice: Meeting the Challenges of the Twenty-first Century" adopted by the Congress, Member States committed themselves to the development of more effective ways of collaboration with one another with a view to eradicating the scourge of trafficking in persons, especially women and children, and established 2005 as the target year for achieving a significant decrease in the incidence of those crimes worldwide and, where that is not attained, for assessing the actual implementation of the measures advocated (see A/CONF.187/15).

C. Commission on Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice

21. At its eighth session, the Commission on Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice recommended the adoption by the Economic and Social Council of a number of resolutions relevant to trafficking in women and girls. These included Economic and Social Council resolutions 1999/20 of 30 July 1999, on the draft United Nations Convention against Transnational Organized Crime and the draft protocols thereto, and 1999/23 of 28 July 1999, on the work of the United Nations Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice Programme. In resolution 1999/23, the Council noted, inter alia, the Centre's initiative, in cooperation with

the United Nations Interregional Crime and Justice Research Institute, in developing the global programme against trafficking in human beings, but stressed that it should be formulated on the basis of close consultation with Member States and review by the Commission on Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice.

D. Commission on Human Rights

22. The Commission on Human Rights, in its resolution 1999/40 of 26 April 1999,[16] addressed the traffic in women and girls, expressing its grave concern at the increasing activities of transnational criminal organizations and others that profit from international trafficking in women and stressing the need for a global approach to eradicate such activity. It urged Governments to take appropriate measures to address the root factors, including external factors, that encourage trafficking in women and girls for prostitution and other forms of commercialized sex, forced marriages and forced labour, so as to eliminate trafficking in women, including by strengthening existing legislation with a view to providing better protection of the rights of women and girls and to punishing perpetrators, through both criminal and civil measures. In that resolution, the Commission also called upon Governments, inter alia, to criminalize trafficking in women and girls in all its forms, while ensuring that the victims of those practices are not penalized, invited Governments to take specific steps to address trafficking, such as the development of programmes and the formulation of training manuals and encouraged relevant United Nations bodies and organizations, as well as the International Organization on Migration, to contribute in that regard, in cooperation with relevant intergovernmental organizations and non-governmental organizations.

23. Commission resolution 2000/44 of 20 April 2000[17] contained many of the elements of the above-mentioned resolution but, in it, the Commission encouraged Governments to work for the early finalization of the draft United Nations Convention against Transnational Organized Crime, including the draft protocol to prevent, suppress and punish trafficking in persons, especially women and children, and to give the draft Convention and the protocol a human rights perspective. It also noted with appreciation the efforts of participating Governments and intergovernmental and non-governmental organizations at the Asian Regional Initiative Against Trafficking in Women and Children (ARIAT) meeting held at Manila in March 2000 to develop a regional action plan against trafficking in persons, especially women and children and encouraged other regional initiatives in that regard.

E. Subcommission on the Protection and Promotion of Human Rights

24. The Subcommission on the Protection and Promotion of Human Rights has continued to address trafficking through its Working Group on Contemporary Forms of Slavery. At its twenty-fourth session, the Working Group considered the issue following two days of consultations between its members, organizations of the United Nations system, and non-governmental organizations, which resulted in comprehensive recommendations, including basic principles to be observed at all levels, and on required national and international action (see E/CN.4/Sub.2/1999/17, paras. 13-34 and annex II).

25. In its resolution 1999/17 of 26 August 1999,[18] on the report of the Working Group, the Subcommission: (a) urged States to devise and adopt comprehensive national plans of action against trafficking in persons, particularly for the purposes of prostitution, based on data collection, research and analysis, and in collaboration with non-governmental organizations; (b) encouraged States to collaborate with non-governmental organizations which have expertise in the field to develop national plans of action in accordance with the 1996 Programme of Action for the Prevention of the Traffic in Persons and the Exploitation of Others (E/CN.4/Sub.2/1996/28/Add.1) to ensure the coordination of laws and implementing agencies and the empowerment of the victims and survivors; and (c) requested the Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights to design guidelines for the elaboration of such national plans of action and, upon request, to provide technical assistance to States in the formulation of their national plan. The Subcommission also encouraged Governments, in elaborating the draft Convention against Transnational Organized Crime, including its draft protocol, fully to include a human rights perspective, and take into account work being done in other international forums.

26. As its twenty-fifth session, the Working Group again took up the issue of trafficking in persons,

emphasizing the vulnerability of several groups, including women and children in this context and expressing concern at the new types of trans-border trafficking and the connection between globalization, national immigration policies and trafficking. The main focus of the twenty-sixth session of the Working Group will be trafficking.

F. Draft United Nations Convention against Transnational Organized Crime

27. The Ad Hoc Committee on the Elaboration of the Convention against Transnational Organized Crime, established pursuant to General Assembly resolution 53/111 of 9 December 1998, began its work in January 1999 and has made significant progress in elaboration of the draft United Nations Convention against Transnational Organized Crime and its three protocols which address the illicit manufacturing of and trafficking in firearms; the smuggling of migrants by land, air and sea; and trafficking in persons, especially women and children. The latter instrument, a draft protocol to prevent, suppress and punish trafficking in persons, is the first attempt to address trafficking in persons in a comprehensive manner.

G. Human rights treaty bodies and other human rights mechanisms

28. A number of the human rights treaty bodies have considered trafficking in women and girls during the consideration of reports of States parties submitted under the respective treaties.

29. In its report submitted to the second session of the Commission on the Status of Women acting as preparatory committee for the twenty-third special session of the General Assembly, the Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women identified trafficking in women and the exploitation of prostitution as serious challenges to the implementation of the Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women, but also noted that several States parties had introduced measures to address these problems, including extraterritorial legislation to facilitate prosecution of traffickers and laws to protect prostitutes (E/CN.6/1999/PC/4, paras. 24 and 29). During 1999, the Committee made specific reference to trafficking and related exploitation in its concluding comments on China, Colombia, Georgia, Greece, Kyrgyzstan, Nepal and Thailand.[19] It also addressed the issue in its concluding comments in 2000 with respect to Austria, Belarus, Germany, India, Lithuania, Moldova, Myanmar and Romania.[20] The concluding observations of the Human Rights Committee adopted with respect to Cambodia and Mexico, those of the Committee on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights adopted with respect to Germany and Italy and the Committee on the Rights of the Child adopted with respect to Cambodia, Georgia, Guinea, India, Kyrgyzstan, Mali, Mexico, the Netherlands, South Africa and Venezuela include recommendations to combat trafficking and regarding to the provision of support and assistance for victims.[21]

30. Several of the special rapporteurs of the Commission on Human Rights have continued to address the trafficking of women and children within the context of their respective mandates. The Special Rapporteur on violence against women, its causes and consequences submitted a report to the Commission on Human Rights at its fifty-sixth session on trafficking in women, women's migration and violence against women (E/CN.4/2000/68 and Add.1-5). In the report, the Special Rapporteur, inter alia, proposes a definition of trafficking in persons; addresses the root causes of trafficking; describes trafficking patterns; governmental, multilateral, bilateral and non-governmental responses to the issue; and elaborates recommendations directed at the international and national levels. Within the context of her mandate, the Special Rapporteur on the sale of children, child prostitution and child pornography has considered trafficking in children in her report submitted to the Commission on Human Rights at its fifty-fifth session (E/CN.4/1999/17 and Add.1), which had a special focus on sale and trafficking in children, while in her first report to the Commission on Human Rights, the Special Rapporteur on the human rights of migrants drew attention to the interface between migration and trafficking (see E/CN.4/2000/82). The Special Rapporteur on the situation of human rights in Bosnia and Herzegovina, the Republic of Croatia and the Federal Republic of Yugoslavia has drawn attention to evidence of trafficking and making specific recommendations in that regard (E/CN.14/2000/39, paras. 20-22).

H. Activities of the regional commissions, specialized agencies and other entities

31. Trafficking has been addressed by a number of United Nations entities. In the follow-up to the review of the implementation of the Platform for Action by the Economic Commission for Asia and the Pacific (ESCAP) High-level Intergovernmental Meeting to Review Regional Implementation of the Platform, ESCAP is currently updating a database on projects to confront trafficking and will continue to provide advisory services to countries on the issue. *The World's Women 2000: Trends and Statistics*,[22] prepared by the Statistics Division of the Department of Economic and Social Affairs of the United Nations Secretariat, contains a section on trafficking and forced prostitution, prepared in collaboration with the Division for the Advancement of Women, while the Department of Public Information has produced several radio and television programmes on trafficking in women and girls, as well as articles on the issue.

32. The International Labour Organization (ILO) addresses the issue of trafficking in women and children within the context of its work on forced labour, child labour, migrants and migrant workers and the framework of its Conventions, a number of which are directly or indirectly relevant to the issue.[23] Notably, the Worst Forms of Child Labour Convention, 1999 (No. 182) specifically addresses trafficking in children and calls for measures to take account of the special situation of girls. The Recommendation that supplements the Convention provides further guidance for its effective implementation. Increasingly, trafficking, especially trafficking in children for purposes of prostitution, has been discussed by the ILO Committee of Experts on the Application of Conventions and Recommendations and the ILO Conference Committee on the Application of Conventions and Recommendations. The Committee of Experts has requested detailed information on actions taken against traffickers in individual countries, and has pointed to the importance of raising awareness about trafficking in all sectors of society. In the General Survey in the Migration for Employment Convention (Revised), 1949 (No. 97) and the Migrant Workers (Supplementary Provisions) Convention, 1975 (No. 143) conducted in 1998, the Committee of Experts expressed concern at the phenomenon of labour migration as an aspect of irregular migration and noted that illegal migration was becoming highly organized internationally and was linked to criminal activities including human trafficking. Pursuant to the recommendation of the Committee of Experts that the applicable legal instruments be revised and updated and perhaps merged into a single Convention so as to eliminate gaps, there was general agreement that the ILO Governing Body place the issue of migration on the agenda of the International Labour Conference.

33. Other ILO action to address trafficking has taken place through its International Programme on the Elimination of Child Labour and the Gender Promotion Programme, through which assistance has been provided to countries on programme design and implementation. Two subregional programmes in the Mekong region and South Asia to combat trafficking in children and women for labour exploitation have been implemented. These programmes include action-oriented research in Cambodia, China, the Lao People's Democratic Republic, Thailand and Viet Nam.

34. Activities of the United Nations Development Fund for Women (UNIFEM) have been focused on improving data and information systems relating to trafficking in women, and the strengthening of regional and national coalitions and networks. In March 1999, UNIFEM coordinated a mission to India to collect information on trafficking from non-governmental organizations, which resulted in the establishment at Mumbai, India, of an anti-trafficking centre to facilitate data collection and exchange, and training for governmental officials, including those working in law enforcement, and transport workers. In partnership with the United States Agency for International Development (USAID), UNIFEM has established a South Asian regional project for the prevention of trafficking in women and children which seeks to increase political and community support at different levels in high-risk areas, integrate reliable data and research findings in advocacy, protection and prosecution activities and improve monitoring of existing laws on the subject. A South Asian anti-trafficking information centre will be established to facilitate the collection and dissemination of relevant information. Several of the projects funded through the UNIFEM-administered Trust Fund in Support of Actions to Eliminate Violence against Women have also addressed trafficking in women and girls. These have included an educational and non-governmental organization coalition-building project to combat trafficking of high-risk girls and young women of the

Russian Federation and a film for advocacy at the grass-roots level in Nepal.

35. In addition to supporting studies on trafficking, the United Nations Children's Fund (UNICEF) collaborates with other United Nations bodies and non-governmental organizations in several projects that specifically address trafficking in women and children. For example, UNICEF and ESCAP have developed a project for the elimination of sexual abuse and sexual exploitation of children and youth in Asia and the Pacific in order to build the capacity of local governmental officials and non-governmental organizations, including through the formulation of curriculum and training materials and subregional training; UNICEF and the ILO International Programme for the Elimination of Child Labour have collaborated on an initiative to combat trafficking in children and women for labour exploitation in the Mekong subregion and South Asia that is developing guidelines on best practice and offers economic alternatives to trafficking victims and those at risk; UNICEF supports the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) project on trafficking in women and children in the Mekong subregion that is preparing an inventory of activities to address trafficking, assessing gaps and creating mechanisms for coordination; UNICEF is also a partner with IOM in a project on the return and reintegration of trafficked women from China to Viet Nam, Thailand to Cambodia and Cambodia to Viet Nam that includes training components and the provision of psycho-social recovery assistance to victims, and also supports a project administered by the Mekong Regional Law Centre which is aimed at developing a practical programme to improve legislation and law enforcement. UNICEF also supports a project on children in need of special protection in Benin that includes awareness-raising components, child-rights advocacy and the provision of educational facilities for girl domestic workers.

36. Following the identification by the United Nations High Commissioner on Human Rights of trafficking as a priority issue, an Adviser to the High Commissioner on the issue was appointed, as was a Special Representative to support national and regional trafficking initiatives, who is based in Cambodia. A specific anti-trafficking programme to ensure the integration of human rights into international, regional and national anti-trafficking initiatives was created, and an intra-office coordination group on trafficking established in order to maintain appropriate links among the various human rights mechanisms and the officers working with them. The emphasis of the programme has been on the development and promotion of legal standards and the provision of policy leadership. In this context, an informal note (A/AC.254/16) was submitted by the High Commissioner to the Ad Hoc Committee on the Elaboration of a Convention against Transnational Organized Crime at its fourth session, held at Vienna from 28 June to 9 July 1999, emphasizing that the Convention and its accompanying protocols should not conflict with or otherwise undermine international human rights law. An inter-agency statement on the protocols was subsequently circulated by the Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights, UNHCR, UNICEF and IOM at the eighth session of the Ad Hoc Committee, held from 21 February to 3 March 2000. The High Commissioner also communicated her views on the draft South Asian Association for Regional Cooperation (SAARC) convention against trafficking in women and girls to the Heads of Government of SAARC member States.

37. The Office of the High Commissioner has undertaken a number of different activities at the regional and subregional levels. In partnership with the Council of Europe, the Office is implementing a joint trafficking prevention programme for Eastern and Central Europe which is comprised of awareness-raising and training activities targeting vulnerable groups, in particular refugees and displaced women and girls, especially from Kosovo.

38. The field office of the High Commissioner at Sarajevo has collaborated with the United Nations Mission in Bosnia and Herzogovina (UNMIBH), local non-governmental organizations and other organizations, including IOM, to assist victims, facilitate the prosecution of traffickers and promote law reform and other preventive measures. In response to the growing evidence of trafficking in Bosnia and Herzegovina, the Office of the High Commissioner and UNMIBH launched a formal joint initiative to address the problem. The initiative, which emphasizes the protection of victims from a human rights perspective and as a secondary component works to increase the effectiveness of State authorities in this context, dealt with 40 separate cases of trafficking or possible

trafficking into Bosnia and Herzegovina involving 182 women between March 1999 and March 2000.

39. In September 1999, the field office of the High Commissioner at Sarajevo coordinated a round-table meeting on trafficking in Kosovo which resulted in recommendations directed at the international community on the issue in the context of reconstruction in Kosovo. The field office at Sarajevo continues to collaborate with other actors, including UNIFEM, the United Nations Interim Administration Mission in Kosovo, UNICEF, the Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees (UNHCR), IOM, the Organization for Security and Cooperation in Europe (OSCE) and local non-governmental organizations in the development of strategies to address trafficking.

40. The Office of the High Commissioner organized two workshops in Nepal in March 1999 which resulted in the formulation of recommendations to the Governments, civil society and the United Nations system, and the development of a pilot project on trafficking which will form part of the United Nations response to the issue in Nepal. National human rights institutions in the Asian and Pacific region have also been encouraged to address trafficking through a focal point system in order to facilitate the exchange of information and experience on the issue, a strategy that will be replicated in other regions. The Office has also provided travel and project grants to non-governmental organizations working on behalf of victims of trafficking through the Trust Fund on Contemporary Forms of Slavery.

41. Implementation of the global programme against trafficking in human beings, launched by the Centre for International Crime Prevention and Criminal Justice and the United Nations Interregional Crime and Justice Research Institute (UNICRI) in March 1999, has advanced. The global programme, which seeks to enable countries of origin, transit and destination to develop joint strategies and practical action against trafficking, has been planned and implemented in cooperation with international and regional organizations including UNICEF, UNIFEM, the European Union, the International Criminal Police Organization (Interpol), IOM and OSCE, as well as international and national non-governmental organizations, local institutions and experts. The programme addresses the issue of trafficking generally, rather than focusing specifically on trafficking in women and girls.

42. In addition to an in-depth assessment of trafficking trends, the programme's components include a series of technical cooperation projects, currently being carried out or prepared in countries in Africa, Asia, Europe and Latin America, which will test the effectiveness of anti-trafficking measures with a view to their being included in an international strategy against trafficking in human beings. Project activities to be carried out in cooperation with national counterparts are based on an analysis of the involvement of organized crime in the trafficking of human beings. A database containing examples of best practice will be established so that information can be available to policy makers, practitioners, researchers and non-governmental organizations.

43. The first of the technical cooperation projects, initiated in the Philippines, established a national inter-agency mechanism to coordinate the activities of the various international agencies that address aspects of trafficking, with information on the involvement of organized crime groups in trafficking being collected on the basis of a questionnaire developed by UNICRI. With the support of several Governments, a project to cover the Czech Republic and Poland has been initiated in Eastern Europe. Projects are being initiated in Brazil to assess routes and modalities used by organized crime groups to traffic human beings and in the West African region, where trafficking flows and the existing responses of governmental and non-governmental organizations, in particular with respect to the disappearance of children believed to be sold by traffickers for slave labour, will be assessed in Benin, Nigeria and Togo.

44. Although the involvement of UNHCR on trafficking issues has been limited, it has acted as a catalyst in bringing together intergovernmental and non-governmental organizations to address the situation of women and girls victims of trafficking in Albania. UNHCR hosts regular bi-weekly meetings on trafficking, as well as facilitating the exchange of information among interested organizations.

IV. Activities of other international bodies

45. The activities of IOM on trafficking include information campaigns and dissemination, research programmes, capacity-building for Governments and

other institutions, and the provision of assistance and protection, including return and reintegration of victims of trafficking. A programme to develop and expand awareness of best practice in statutory, governmental, non-governmental and voluntary agency efforts in trafficking of women and girls is being implemented in Bosnia and Herzegovina, Kosovo, Montenegro and The former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia, while assistance and protection programmes for trafficked persons exist in Albania, Bangladesh, Belgium, Bosnia and Herzegovina, Kosovo, Thailand and Viet Nam. IOM is also implementing a global assistance programme which creates a mechanism for the provision of rapid, case-by-case assistance to women and children victims of trafficking outside their countries of origin who require immediate protection and support.

46. Within the European Union, efforts to address trafficking have included a second Communication to the Council and the European Parliament on trafficking in women, which was issued in December 1998 and which affirmed that the trafficking of women remained high on the agenda of the European Union and focused on the need for improved national, regional and international cooperation and coordination between authorities responsible for migration, justice and social affairs and non-governmental organizations and for links to be made between international and regional organizations, including the United Nations, the Council of Europe and the European Union. The "milestone" agreements reached by the European Council at its meeting held at Tampere, Finland, on 15 and 16 October 1999 called for the development, in close cooperation with countries of origin and transit, of information campaigns on possibilities for legal migration and the prevention of all forms of trafficking in human beings, and urged the adoption of legislation, including severe sanctions, against that activity. The Council also agreed that Member States, together with the European Police Office (Europol), should direct their efforts towards detecting and dismantling the criminal networks involved, while at the same time, securing the rights of victims, with special emphasis on the problems of women and children.[24] The Commission of the European Union is formulating proposals on the alignment of penal provisions of Member States on the issue, including on the granting of limited residence permits for victims willing to testify. Initiatives have also continued in the context of the STOP programme, an incentive and exchange programme for persons responsible for combating trade in human beings and the sexual exploitation of children which aims to promote training and cooperation in regard to the issue, and the Daphne programme of community action on preventive measures to fight violence against children, young persons and women.[25]

47. Activities of the Council of Europe have included research, awareness-raising and information and prevention campaigns, including a campaign conducted in Albania on the risks of trafficking, and collaborative activities with other organizations, including the United Nations. A multisectoral group on trafficking in human beings for the purposes of sexual exploitation, headed by the Steering Committee for Equality for Women and Men, was established in December 1997, to consider means of addressing trafficking. The work of that group, the final report of which was issued in March 1999, formed the background to the adoption by the Committee of Ministers of the Council of Europe of Recommendation R (2000) 11, on action against trafficking in human beings for the purposes of sexual exploitation. The appendix to the Recommendation includes recommendations relating to prevention, assistance to and protection of victims, penal legislation and judicial cooperation and coordination, and cooperation to be considered by Member States.

48. In late 1999, the Organization of American States launched a project in partnership with the International Human Rights Law Institute of De Paul University, Chicago, United States of America, on international trafficking in women and children in the Americas. Up to eight pilot countries have been selected for analysis, with results being expected to be presented to the Assembly of Delegates in November 2000.

49. Trafficking in women and girls is also a concern of OSCE, the Parliamentary Assembly of which in July 1999 adopted a resolution condemning sex traffickers and urging States to punish traffickers.[26] In June 2000, the OSCE Office for Democratic Institutions and Human Rights presented a proposed action plan for activities to combat trafficking in human beings to a meeting held at Vienna. Participants proposed a broad range of recommendations for action, including those concerning cooperation and coordination with other international organizations, national institutions and non-governmental organizations, and concerning support for victims.

50. Although the incidence of trafficking in women and girls remains unknown, it appears to be a growing problem, both as a result of the persistence of its root causes — poverty, and discrimination and inequality which prevent women from exercising control over their lives — and the proliferation of trans-border organized crime networks. Strategies to address these root causes are a priority for Member States and for the United Nations system of organizations and other organizations. At the same time, alternatives should be provided to women and girls who are particularly vulnerable to traffickers, and to the risks associated with informal migration.

51. Measures should be adopted at the international, regional and national levels to discourage traffickers. Member States should ensure that specific offences related to trafficking exist and are widely and clearly defined, and that the penalties for these offences should reflect the gravity of the crimes involved. International, regional, subregional and bilateral agreements should be reached so as to ensure and facilitate the prosecution of offenders, irrespective of location. States should consider the introduction of legislation incorporating extraterritorial provisions to facilitate prosecution of traffickers who may be abroad, as well as clear extradition procedures for trafficking-related offences. Judicial cooperation and information-sharing between States should be encouraged and facilitated.

52. While strong measures to discourage traffickers should be introduced, victims of trafficking should be protected and assisted, including through the provision of legal, physical and psychological assistance. Measures should be taken to encourage victims of trafficking to identify traffickers and act as witnesses in criminal prosecutions. Witness protection measures should be considered, and States should examine the provision of restrictions on deportation that have been introduced in a number of Member States and provisions that allow for compensation through criminal compensation schemes. The human rights of victims should be ensured and steps should be taken to ensure that victims are not criminalized or imprisoned. In particular, measures should be adopted to ensure the safety of trafficking victims and their families in the countries of origin, destination and transit.

53. Data and information on trafficking and legislative and other strategies to address to confront this problem should be collected and shared so as to allow for the exchange of experience and best practice. Research into the precise scale and extent of trafficking and the modus operandi of traffickers should be encouraged so as to provide a concrete basis for legal and policy change, while experience in legal and policy change should be gathered and disseminated. In this regard, successful interventions and strategies in addressing this problem should be compiled and disseminated, including through the work of the Inter-Agency Committee on Women and Gender Equality.

Notes

[1] Responses were received from Austria, Belarus, Belgium, Cyprus, Denmark, Ecuador, Luxembourg, Malawi, Mexico, Nicaragua, Oman, Portugal, Thailand and Ukraine.

[2] Responses were received from: Department of Peacekeeping Operations, Department of Public Information, Statistics Division of the Department of Economic and Social Affairs, Centre for Crime Control and Criminal Justice of the United Nations Office for Drug Control and Crime Prevention, Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Human Rights, Office of the United Nations High Commissioner for Refugees, Economic Commission for Africa, Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the Pacific, Economic Commission for Latin America and the Caribbean, Economic Commission for Western Asia, United Nations Development Programme, United Nations Children's Fund, United Nations Development Fund for Women, United Nations University, International Labour Organization, Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations and World Health Organization.

[3] A response was received from the International Organization for Migration.

[4] United Nations publication, Sales No. E.99.III.B.43.

[5] United Nations Office for Drug Control and Crime Prevention, *Global Report on Crime and Justice* (Oxford, New York, Oxford University Press, 1999), pp. 225-227.

[6] *Report of the Fourth World Conference on Women, Beijing, 4-15 September 1995* (United Nations publication, Sales No. E.96.IV.13), chap. I, resolution 1, annex II.

[7] For example, Ecuador's provisions on sexual crimes, procurement and corruption of minors, introduced in July 1998 in Act No. 106 and Mexico's 4 January 2000 decree amending various provisions of the Federal Criminal Code and Federal Code of Criminal Procedures.

[8] Law 175 of 17 July 1997.

[9] Law 87 of 16 February 1999.

[10] Article 138, General Population Act.

[11] Law No. 3 (1) 2000.

[12] Law No. 61 (1) 96 as amended by Law No. 41 (1) 98.

[13] Criminal Code, Articles 104a, 217 and 202.

[14] Aliens Act, 1997, article 10.

[15] Criminal Code 124-1.

[16] *Official Records of the Economic and Social Council, 1999, Supplement No. 3* (E/1999/23), chap. II, sect. A.

[17] Ibid., *2000, Supplement No. 3* (E/2000/23), chap. II, sect. A.

[18] See E/CN.4/2000/2-E/CN.4/Sub.2/1999/54.

[19] *Official Records of the General Assembly, Fifty-fourth Session, Supplement No. 38* (A/54/38/Rev.1).

[20] Ibid., *Fifty-fifth Session, Supplement No. 38* (A/55/38).

[21] See CCPR/C/79/Add.108, CCPR/C/79/Add.109, E/C.12/1/Add.29, E/C.12/1/Add.43, CRC/C/15/Add.128, CRC/C/15/Add.124, CRC/C/15/Add.100, CRC/C/15/Add.115, CRC/C/15/Add.127, CRC/C/15/Add.113, CRC/C/15/Add.112, CRC/C/15/Add.114, CRC/C/15/Add.122 and CRC/C/15/Add.109, respectively.

[22] United Nations publication, Sales No. E.00.XVII.14.

[23] Forced Labour Convention, 1930 (No. 29), the Migration for Employment Convention (Revised), 1949 (No. 97); the Migrant Workers (Supplementary Provisions) Convention, 1975 (No. 143); and the Minimum Age Convention, 1973 (No. 138).

[24] Presidency Conclusions, Tampere European Council (SN 200/99, paras. 22 and 23).

[25] Examples of Daphne-funded initiatives include "Crossing borders against trafficking in women and girls: a resource book for working against trafficking in women in the Baltic Sea Region", produced by Kvinnoforum, Sweden, in partnership with the Latvian Gender Problem Centre and the Monika Association in Finland (November 1999); and *Developing best Professional Practice for Reducing Sexual Abuse, Domestic Violence and Trafficking in Militarised Areas of Peacetime Europe*, by Catherine Euler and Daniel Welzer-Lang (Women's International League for Peace and Freedom, Geneva; Les Traboules and Equipe Simon, Toulouse, France; and Research Centre on Violence, Abuse and Gender Relations, Leeds, United Kingdom, March 2000).

[26] St. Petersburg Declaration of the OSCE Parliamentary Assembly, 10 July 1999.